



EDITORS
PROF. DR. MUHLİSE ÇOŞGUN ÖGEYİK
ASSOC. PROF. DR. KUTAY UZUN

CONTEMPORARY EDUCATION: REFRAMING THEORY AND PRACTICE ACROSS FIELDS



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Prof. Dr. Muhlise Coşgun Ögeyik is a faculty member of the Faculty of Education at Trakya University. Prof. Dr. Muhlise Coşgun Ögeyik is an accomplished educator and researcher, currently serving as the head of the English Language Teacher Training Department. She has dedicated her career to training language teachers and advancing research in the fields of language teaching theories and learner psychology. Prof. Dr. Muhlise Coşgun Ögeyik has extensive experience as a teacher trainer in the English Language Teacher Training Department. Prof. Dr. Coşgun Ögeyik is an active participant in the academic community, regularly presenting her research at national and international conferences. Her research includes examining the intersection of educational psychology and language teaching, investigating the role of emotional intelligence in enhancing teaching effectiveness, and analyzing contemporary approaches to teacher education. Prof. Dr. Coşgun Ögeyik is dedicated to advancing the quality of language teacher training through both theoretical and empirical studies. She is committed to shaping the future of language education through her leadership and scholarship.



Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kutay Uzun, currently a faculty member at Trakya University in the Department of Foreign Languages Education, obtained his Ph.D. in English Language Teaching from Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. His research primarily focuses on writing skills and language assessment, particularly in the context of foreign language education, and explores the integration of technology into language assessment methodologies. His academic contributions include numerous publications on applied linguistics, language pedagogy, and educational assessment. Dr. Uzun is also involved in various international projects and conferences, where he shares his expertise in improving language learning outcomes and language teacher training. At Trakya University, he actively mentors graduate students and teaches courses related to the use of corpora in language education, academic discourse, and educational research, fostering critical engagement with both the theoretical and practical dimensions of language education. In addition, Dr. Uzun's work on language assessment aims to enhance instructional practices, particularly through the selection of predictor variables for both classroom and large-scale language testing scenarios.



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Preface

Education today is at a crossroads, characterized by rapid technological advancements, evolving pedagogical theories, and increasingly diverse learning environments. By navigating these changes, educators and researchers need to explore innovative strategies and frameworks and become ever more critical. This book, "Contemporary Education: Reframing Theory and Practice Across Fields," brings together a collection of studies that reflect the dynamic and multifaceted nature of contemporary education. It seeks to offer fresh perspectives on both theoretical and practical approaches that can inform and transform educational practice.

The contributions within this volume offer a broad range of topics, each providing unique insights into the complex landscape of contemporary education. From exploring innovative instructional strategies and examining the intricacies of language acquisition to introducing novel methods for evaluating writing quality, these studies collectively aim to enhance our understanding of effective teaching and learning practices. The book also

explores critical examinations of research methodologies and theoretical frameworks by encouraging educators and researchers to reflect on the underlying assumptions that guide their work and to consider new approaches that can enrich educational inquiry.

A significant focus of this book is the exploration of factors that influence learning outcomes, such as self-efficacy beliefs, learning styles and strategies, reading/writing skills in foreign language, and early literacy skills. By investigating these and other key variables, the studies within this volume offer practical recommendations for educators and researchers who seek to better understand and respond to the diverse needs of their students. Moreover, the book emphasizes the importance of assessment literacy and its role in fostering effective teaching practices, particularly in the context of language education.

Through its diverse range of studies, this book provides a comprehensive overview of the current state of educational research and practice. It serves as a resource for educators, researchers, and policymakers who are looking to deepen their understanding

of contemporary educational challenges and opportunities. By reframing both theory and practice, the contributors to this volume offer new ways of thinking about education that are responsive to the changing needs of learners and the evolving demands of society.

We are grateful to the authors who have contributed to this collection and to the educators and researchers whose commitment to advancing the field of education continues to inspire innovation and growth. We hope that this book will serve as a catalyst for further exploration and dialogue, facilitating to shape the future of education in meaningful and impactful ways.

Prof. Dr. Muhlise COŞGUN ÖGEYİK

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kutay UZUN

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Kübra Uğurlu

Chapter 1

Investigating Writing Assessment Literacy of English Language Instructors at Tertiary Level

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Background of the Study

The 21st century has witnessed a stupendous increase in the testing and assessment duties placed upon language teachers, which raised the importance of the concept of language assessment literacy (LAL, henceforth). LAL refers to the knowledge base required to carry out language assessment procedures (Inbar-Lourie, 2013). It also encompasses the ability of teachers to give feedback to learners' work to efficiently guide them into required learning outcomes. In particular, teacher

assessment literacy (TAL, henceforth) is regarded with teachers' knowledge, skills, and ability to perform sound assessment procedures, by which pedagogy and learning are informed (Fulcher, 2012). It has also been defined as an understanding of the principles of sound assessment (Popham, 2004; Stiggins, 2002), and it is considered to be essential in attaining and sustaining quality teaching and learning (Crusan et al., 2016).

TAL is of great significance; however, teachers do not usually have sufficient background or training in assessment although they are the decision-makers of it (DeLuca, 2012; Lam, 2015). Several efforts have been made to address this issue, and data have been collected concerning the knowledge and skills teachers need to be regarded as assessment literate as well as their training needs, efficacy in assessment, and assessment literacy understanding in context (Xu & Brown, 2016). Furthermore, various models of TAL have been put forward with different foci (e.g., Abell & Siegel, 2011; DeLuca, 2012; Willis et al., 2013). However, according to Xu and Brown (2016), these

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previous models have failed to consider the pre- and in-service teacher education. After a careful synthesis and analysis of prior studies, Xu and Brown (2016) created a new framework to encompass all phases of teacher education and development.

Considering that the role of assessment is crucial in the teaching and learning process (Lam, 2015), and teachers are at the core of evaluating students, there has been increased attention in LAL. Nevertheless, the plethora of research betokened a low level of LAL (Semiz & Odabaş, 2016; Xu & Brown, 2017). Furthermore, LAL is a comparatively new term, and although some research has been conducted on it in the Turkish context (e.g., Hatipoğlu, 2010; Mede & Atay, 2017; Şahin, 2019), more research is needed to reveal the assessment literacy of language teachers, specifically on writing assessment, in the Turkish context. The current research aims at investigating the writing assessment literacy of English Language Teachers at tertiary level in Turkey.

Literature Review

The following literature review delineates the constituents of assessment literacy as presented in the literature, as well

as concentrates on research studies on LAL both in the world and in Turkey.

Language Assessment Literacy (LAL)

In the past decades, developing professional knowledge and understanding of teachers has gained importance in education circles as a result of the emerging of understanding teachers being the most significant factors affecting student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Rowe & Hill, 1998; Wright et al., 1997). Due to these developments of standards in general education, language education has also naturally been affected by those developments (Farhady, 2019), and assessment practices of teachers have gained momentum. Consequently, language assessment literacy (LAL) was born. Although there have been different attempts to define the term, there is not a consensus made to comprehensively define it. However, it could be stated that the expectations regarding LAL can differ as it has to meet the needs born as a result of the context where language teaching occurs (Inbar-Laurie, 2017).

The need for teachers who are language assessment literate has been pointed out by several scholars (e.g., O'Loughlin, 2006; Scarino 2013). However,

despite the increasing need for LAL, the concept demonstrates a low profile in second language (L2) writing as several teachers fail to have confidence and knowledge to be able to assess and evaluate student writing efficiently (Crusan et al., 2016). It has also been argued that assessment courses in teacher education programs are usually more generic (Lam, 2019); thus, language teachers usually acquire language assessment literacy on duty.

Several research studies have been conducted on the concept of assessment literacy. Those research studies focused on what stakeholders should know and which skills they should have to achieve assessment literacy (e.g., Abell & Siegel, 2011; Taylor, 2013), building educators' knowledge and skills in assessment for learning (e.g., DeLuca et al., 2015), examining the language assessment courses (e.g., Jin, 2010; Lam, 2015; O'Loughlin, 2006), and several other topics regarding assessment literacy. The following research studies will include those that are relevant to the present research including the ones examining teacher assessment literacy.

Research on Language Assessment Literacy

Research on LAL of teachers suggests that teachers' LAL appears to be

underdeveloped to some extent (e.g., Muhammad & Bardakçı, 2019; Campbell & Evans, 2010). For example, of those researchers who tried to explore LAL of teachers, Muhammad and Bardakçı (2019) examined 101 teachers working at secondary and preparatory schools in Iraq. They found out that teachers' stated assessment literacy was high; however, the results demonstrated low assessment literacy. In a similar vein, Campbell and Evans (2010) explored the LAL of pre-service teachers by reviewing 65 lesson plans and found that prospective teachers lacked the necessary criteria such as validity and reliability when assessing learners. Furthermore, the results showed that those teachers also lacked knowledge of test construction. Likewise, Jannati (2015) also found that 18 English language teachers in Iran also lacked the assessment skills to put into practice despite being well-informed about the basic concepts and assessment terminology.

Stating that Bangladesh is a highly test-oriented country, Sultana (2019) believes that assessing LAL is even more important there. In that vein, Sultana (2019) investigated the nature and functionality of LAL in Bangladesh and found that teachers had a low level of LAL as they were academically and professionally inadequate

in terms of language assessment. Likewise, Vogt and Tsagari (2014) attempted to gauge the current level of LAL of teachers from seven countries and their training needs. The results showed that teachers' LAL skills were relatively insufficient. More recently, Lam (2019) examined assessment literacy from teachers' perspectives and which aspects of teacher assessment literacy needed more reinforcement. The findings showed that although teachers' self-reported assessment knowledge is relatively pertinent, the observed data imply a partial understanding of writing concepts.

The existing literature also emphasizes that when teachers have routines to fall on, they usually turn to those routines of using familiar procedures. To exemplify, Rohl (1999) mentioned that teachers prefer choosing the frameworks in which they had received training. Similarly, Reynolds-Keefers (2010) gauged that the trainee teacher in her study stated to utilize scoring rubrics in their future professions as they were already familiar with them.

Research on Language Assessment Literacy in Türkiye

Turkish students' English language proficiency is found to be of the lowest among Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)

countries (Savaşkan, 2016). Constantly changing language teaching policies in Turkey undoubtedly affected this issue in a negative manner; however, lack of assessment knowledge of teachers is undeniably among those reasons affecting the situation (Ölmezer-Öztürk et al., 2021). An analysis of the literature demonstrated that research studies conducted on LAL are very scarce in Turkey, and even non-existent at tertiary level. A few studies have been conducted on the concept, and they indicate that LAL of language teachers in Turkey is quite low (Ölmezer-Öztürk & Aydın, 2018).

Hatipoğlu (2010), being one of the earliest researchers to conduct LAL-related studies, analyzed students' perceptions about language testing courses given at university and found that students highlighted a need for more testing courses to balance theory and practice and more time to cover them. From a different perspective, Yetkin (2015) investigated the perceptions of prospective teachers about the implementation of several assessment strategies and found that teachers favored observations of student development compared to other assessment techniques. More recently, Ölmezer-Öztürk (2018) conducted a large-scale research to assess teachers' knowledge of language

assessment. Reading skills were found to be the one that teachers were most knowledgeable about to assess, and they had the least literacy in listening assessment. The researcher stated that there is a call for more training to assess all four language skills.

To find out how assessment literate the teachers are at state and foundation universities in Turkey, Mede and Atay (2017) investigated 350 teachers with at least five years of teaching experience. The results showed that teachers lacked giving feedback skills and assessing skills and needed more training on the issues. Furthermore, other than the need for more training, recent literature suggests that Turkish teachers of English favor traditional assessment techniques (Öz, 2014) and do not take suggestions from others into consideration by trusting their own preferences of assessment (Han & Kaya, 2014). Also, although there is a need for more training regarding assessing the language, research highlights the inefficacy of training provided for teachers as they mainly draw on theory rather than practical elements (Ölmezer-Öztürk, et al., 2021).

Method

The present research study aims to investigate the writing assessment literacy of English Language Instructors at tertiary level in Turkey. The following sections introduce the methodology used in the research.

Research Questions

With the aim of investigating writing assessment literacy of English language instructors, the following research questions are addressed:

1. What are the self-reported levels of assessment literacy of English language teachers at tertiary level?
2. What are the needs of tertiary level teachers regarding their TAL?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of the current paper draws on the work of Xu and Brown (2016). Their model includes six components regarding assessment including knowledge base, teacher conceptions of assessment, institutional and sociocultural contexts, teacher assessment literacy in practice, teacher learning, and teacher role as assessors (Xu & Brown, 2016, p. 155). To align with the scope of the paper, knowledge base, teacher conceptions of assessment, and teacher assessment literacy in practice were taken as a base and were investigated in the current research. Knowledge base in

this paper refers to the knowledge of writing assessment by instructors entailing to be informed about concepts such as giving feedback and types of assessment. Teacher conceptions of assessment refer to the cognitive aspects of writing assessment referring to the belief systems of instructors. Finally, teacher assessment literacy is used to refer to the dimensions of writing assessment practice including factors such as those hindering those practices.

Research Design

The present study follows a sequential explanatory mixed methods research design since both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were employed. Creswell (2014) demonstrated the efficiency of sequential explanatory mixed methods research design by stating that it "captures the best of both quantitative and qualitative data—to obtain quantitative results from a population in the first phase, and then refine or elaborate these findings through an in-depth qualitative exploration in the second phase is useful to a researcher who not only wants to explore a phenomenon but also wants to expand on the exploratory research findings" (p.543).

Participants

The participants of the study include English Language Instructors working at a

state university in Edirne, Turkey. One strategy of non-probability sampling, convenience sampling, was utilized in the current research. Dörnyei (2007) describes convenience sampling as sampling in which the researcher selects participants based on a number of specific criteria such as geographical proximity, availability at a certain time, or willingness to volunteer. Dörnyei (2007) also notes that participants should possess certain key characteristics in convenience sampling to meet the purposes of the research. Therefore, two criteria were set before the sampling procedure. Firstly, the participants were chosen from teachers with three or more years of experience. Second, the current study included participants whose only duty is to serve as language teachers different from the participants in Hasselgreen et al.'s research (2004) where teachers served several purposes such as teaching or item writing.

Most of the participants (71.4%) stated that their students' level of language proficiency is average whereas 28.6% believed their students were below average students. More than half of the participants ($n = 10$) had 6-10 years of experience. The latest qualification that most of participants ($n = 9$) had was master's degree. The

majority of the participants ($n = 13$) are graduates of English Language teaching.

Data Collection Tool

The survey instrument to be utilized in this research was developed by Lam (2019). To administer the questionnaire, the researchers targeted a state university in Edirne, Turkey. The questionnaire included three parts including demographic information, knowledge base, conceptions and practices of writing assessment, and open-ended responses. The questionnaire consists of 22 items including constructed-response items, selected-response items, and open-ended response items. The first part of the questionnaire inquires which types of institution the participants work for, teaching experience, English abilities and academic qualifications of the students, and academic qualifications of the teachers. The second part includes a knowledge-based part including questions on testing and assessment theories, understanding the assessment literacy, and difficulties faced during the acquisition of related theories. Another section of the questionnaire investigates the opinions of language teachers on writing assessment. The section related to the practices includes occurrence and kinds of writing assessment given to students, what kinds of feedback is given to

students and how effective they are, and factors facilitating or impeding writing assessment practices. On the other hand, for the qualitative part of the study, the open-ended questions of the questionnaire were adapted and employed as interview.

Data Analysis

To test the reliability of the instrument, seven teachers completed the questionnaire on two separate occasions that were three weeks apart. Participants were not told about the second administration of the questionnaire when they were completing it the first time. The reason why three-week-interval administration was chosen is because that period was considered to be long enough for the participants to not remember their first responses but not long enough for them to change their views on writing assessment or be more well-informed on the concept. Based on the results, Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated on the scores, and the overall reliability was .76.

After the reliability test, the questionnaire was administered through Google Forms. Data gathered from the questionnaire were analyzed with the help of descriptive statistics. Frequency counts, percentages and means of the items were reported in the results. All the analysis was

conducted using the SPSS 26.0 software. To attempt to fulfill the quality criteria (see Dörnyei, 2007 for a detailed explanation of the quality criteria in quantitative research), each item of the questionnaire was analyzed twice. The responses for open-ended items in the questionnaire were analyzed via content analysis. First, the participants' responses were transcribed and the raw data were read twice. After familiarizing with the data, they were reviewed in terms of teachers' perceptions, knowledge and practices about writing assessment. A few quotations from the participants' original responses were included in the findings.

Findings

The findings of the analysis are presented in line with the research questions

Table 1. *Percentages of major purposes of writing assessment according to instructors*

	%	
	Yes	No
Grading	50%	50%
Student Learning	100%	0%
Reporting	21.4%	79.6%

Furthermore, when asked about whether school-based writing assessment could improve student writing, the majority

in this section. To answer the first research question, participants' self-reported levels of TAL in the questionnaire is described in the following section.

Self-reported Levels of Assessment Literacy of English Language Instructors at Tertiary Level Perceptions of Instructors

As can be seen in Table 1, the most common purpose of writing assessment reported by the instructors was student learning (100%). Additionally, while 50% of participants stated writing assessment was for grading, 21.4% stated it was for reporting.

of the participants (92.9%) reported that it could improve specifically in terms of accuracy. They also rated the rest as in the

following order: use of appropriate vocabulary (85.7%), coherence (64.3%), creativity (64.3%), expressiveness (57.1%), clarity (50%), fluency (42.9%), and length (28.6%) (see Table 2).

Table 2. *Percentages of instructors' beliefs on which aspects could improve*

	%	
	Yes	No
Accuracy	92.9%	7.1%
Fluency	42.9%	57.1%
Coherence	64.3%	35.7%
Creativity	64.3%	35.7%
Clarity	50%	50%
Expressiveness	57.1%	42.9%
Length	28.6%	71.4%
Use of appropriate vocabulary	85.7%	14.3%

Table 3. *Percentages of the perceptions on the rationale behind assessment of / for / as learning*

	%	
	Yes	No
Have you learnt about the rationale behind assessment of learning, assessment for learning and assessment as learning?	64.3%	35.7%

When the participants were asked to answer if they learnt about the rationale behind assessment of learning, assessment for learning and assessment as learning, 64.3% of them stated that they learnt. They also stated that they learnt them during their teaching experiences, BA, MA or PhD studies, and from several articles and books they studied on the internet during the accreditation preparations (see Table 3).

As it was presented in Table 4, the results of the analysis yielded that the instructors encountered following challenges when they plan to further enhance their knowledge about writing assessment: no time to take those writing assessment courses (50%), professional training usually too prescriptive and theoretical (35.7%), no relevant professional training about writing assessment (28.6%), and lastly, Lack of conceptual understanding to translate theory into practice (14.3%).

Table 4. *Percentages of challenges instructors encounter when they plan to further enhance their knowledge about writing assessment*

	%	
	Yes	No
Professional training usually too prescriptive and theoretical	35.7%	64.3%
No relevant professional training about writing assessment	28.6%	71.4%
No time to take those writing assessment courses	50%	50%
Lack of conceptual understanding to translate theory into practice	14.3%	85.7%

As Table 5 demonstrated, almost 28.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed about writing being timed and taking place in exam-like conditions. A group of participants

(28.6%) also stated they disagreed about the same item while 28.6% of them were uncertain about it. Regarding writing assessment involving one single draft almost

half of the respondents (42.9%) disagreed. Similarly, 42.9% of participants strongly disagreed about "Students are not allowed to discuss and/or collaborate their writing with other fellow classmates." and "In writing assessment, teachers assign a grade with minimal commentary to students." 28.6% of the instructors agreed about "In writing assessment, teachers assign a grade, a

mark, or a percentage in relation to a marking scheme" while 28.6 % of them stated they strongly agreed about the same item. Lastly, most of the participants (42.9%) agreed on reflection on strengths and weaknesses should also be encouraged during writing assessment.

Table 5. *Percentages of instructors' perceptions of writing assessment*

	<i>SD</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>SA</i>
5.1. Writing assessment is timed and takes place in exam-like conditions.	28.6%	28.6%	28.6%	7.1%	7.1%
5.2. Writing assessment only involves one single draft.	42.9%	28.6%	7.1%	14.3%	7.1%
5.3. Students are not allowed to discuss and/or collaborate their writing with other fellow classmates.	42.9%	21.4%	7.1%	21.4%	7.1%
5.4. In writing assessment, teachers assign a grade with minimal commentary to students.	42.9%	21.4%	21.4%	14.3%	0%
5.5. In writing assessment, teachers assign a grade, a mark, or a percentage in relation to a marking scheme.	14.3%	14.3%	14.3%	28.6%	28.6%
5.6. Teachers encourage students to reflect upon the strengths and weaknesses of their performances in the writing assessment.	0%	14.3%	7.1%	42.9%	35.7%

On the other hand, to support the quantitative data, the results of the interview questions regarding general conception of writing assessment are included here. One of the participants expressed that

Assessing both the process and the product by enhancing learners and allowing them to get engaged is significant in writing assessment. In my opinion, learners should receive feedback from both their teachers and their peers [Participant 3].

Similarly, two other participants agreed that constructive feedback plays an important role in process writing.

Providing constructive feedback to students, enabling them to reflect on their learning and assessment processes and carrying out an objective assessment process involving double marking [Participant 4].

The results of the interview questions defining the concepts of assessment of learning, assessment for learning, and assessment as learning were as follows in order.

To improve students' performance, to involve the students into learning process, to measure the teachers'

and students' performance at the same time. [Participant 1].

Students' learning is assessed by seeing the mistakes and evaluating their strengths and weaknesses, students are assessed to improve their learning by using their previous work, based on self-assessment, peer assessment or teacher assessment, students get the idea about their work and mistakes and try to correct them in an appropriate way [Participant 2].

Providing the learners with feedback to improve their learning performance, providing the learners with the necessary information and guidance to help them manage their learning process, motivating the learners to write is crucial. Once learners are engaged in the process, writing assessment is more effective and meaningful [Participant 3].

Teachers keeping track on student learning and achievement at key points (maybe at the end of tasks, units or terms) and providing transparent interaction regarding this, the teaching and instructional decisions of the teachers regarding

student progress, student reflection on their progress in line with their personal goals and needs [Participant 4]

Knowledge Base

35.7% of the participants reported that they knew somewhat about theories of validity and reliability. As for 28.6 % of them stated they had knowledge of fairness slightly more than very minimal. Washback was also rated by 42.9% of respondents as

having knowledge slightly more than very minimal. They stated that they had sound knowledge of test construction (28.6%). 28.6% of them stated they had average knowledge of test usefulness; while another group of participants (28.6%) stated they had knowledge of test usefulness almost very-well versed. As for classroom-based assessment, 35.7% of respondents reported that they knew very-well about it (see Table 6).

Table 6. *Percentages of instructors' knowledge foundation on writing assessment*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Theories of validity and reliability	21.4%	0	14.3%	35.7%	14.3%	14.3%
Fairness	7.1%	28.6%	21.4%	0%	21.4%	21.4%
Washback	21.4%	42.9%	7.1%	0%	14.3%	14.3%
Test construction	14.3%	0	21.4%	28.6%	14.3%	21.4%
Test usefulness	7.1%	14.3%	28.6%	14.3%	28.6%	7.1%
Classroom-based assessment	28.6%	14.3%	7.1%	7.1%	7.1%	35.7%

(With 1 being very minimal and 6 being very well-versed)

When asked about to what extent they applied these assessment concepts – assessment of learning, assessment for learning, assessment as learning – at a prep

school when assessing writing. As for assessment of learning, the majority stated they applied it to a certain extent. 35.7% of participants stated they applied assessment

for learning to a certain extent. It is stated by 35.7% of participants that assessment as learning was applied to a large extent (see Table 7).

Table 7. *Percentages of to what extent assessment concepts applied at a prep school when assessing writing*

	1	2	3	4	5
Assessment of learning	14.3%	14.3%	28.6%	21.4%	21.4%
Assessment for learning	14.3%	7.1%	35.7%	14.3%	28.6%
Assessment as learning	14.3%	14.3%	28.6%	35.7%	7.1%

(1= To a very small extent, 2= To a small extent, 3= To a certain extent, 4= To a large extent, 5= To a very large extent)

Practices of Instructors

Instructors' reported writing assessment practices and effectiveness, and factors facilitating and inhibiting those practices were presented in this section.

Table 8 illustrates percentages of instructors'

writing assessment practices. The most frequently used means of grading writing were reported as detailed comments only (42.9%) and letter grades or marks with qualitative commentary (28.6%).

Table 8. *Percentages of instructors' writing assessment practices*

	%	
	Yes	No
Detailed comments only	42.9%	57.1%
Marks with a scale of various levels of writing performance	21.4%	78.6%
Letter grades or marks with qualitative commentary	28.6%	71.4%
Letter grades or marks only	14.3%	85.7%
Marking schemes of public writing exams	21.4%	78.6%
Pre-designed rubrics for self-assessment	21.4%	78.6%
Letter grades with a brief rubric like content / language / organization	21.4%	78.6%

As can be inferred from Table 9, for 42.9% of respondents, writing assessment practices were average. 21.4% of them stated it as most effective. While it was reported by 7.2% of respondents as least

effective. Table 9 also shows why they rated effectiveness of their writing assessment practices in this way.

Table 9. *Percentages of effectiveness of instructors' writing assessment practices*

Rank	%	Reported Reason why they rate in this way
1	7.2%	<i>"I do not have much chance to evaluate writing assessments because my lessons are focused on speaking. We are having brief writing practices in combination with speaking, but they are peer reviewed"</i>
2	28.5%	<i>"The assessment rubric should be more detailed."</i> <i>"Due to the curriculum followed at our school, I have limited time for writing activities and writing assessment effectively."</i> <i>"We just grade our students. That's we give marks. We don't have detailed assessment practices."</i> <i>"I believe I need to spare more time to reporting or giving feedback."</i>
3	42.9%	<i>"I don't feel that I have enough information and training in assessing writing. It is limited to my master's degree studies and as the time passes I forget most of the theoretical information"</i> <i>"As I do not teach writing classes, I cannot spend much time on drafting on various writing tasks."</i> <i>"This year I seldom assessed the students' writing, I did it in only exams and quizzes. To be honest, I don't think that we can assess the students' paragraphs effectively due to overloaded work in our School. We couldn't encourage our students to write on their own. They often make use of internet language, and it kills their creativity. Every teacher can spend a few minutes for common mistakes in writing among the students, but we couldn't manage to do this"</i> <i>"Considering the textbook application that we use; this may not be so effective as it is not certain whether we will teach the writing part of the course book."</i> <i>"Effective"</i>
4	21.4%	<i>"Providing clear and constructive feedback to students regularly helps them understand their strengths and weaknesses better."</i> <i>"I generally apply the institution's policy."</i> <i>"My writing assessment practices are effective enough to make the students understand their weak or strong sides in writing."</i>

1: least effective - 5: most effective

The results of the analysis yielded that 78.6% of the respondents reported professional training (e.g., workshops, seminars, or academic courses) as a facilitator during their writing assessment practices. Exchanging comments among

colleagues was in the second order regarding facilitating writing assessment (78.6%). Similarly, personal commitment and enthusiasm was thought by 71.4% of them to facilitate writing assessment practice (see Table 10).

Table 10. *Percentages of possible factors that facilitate instructors' writing assessment practices*

	%	
	Yes	No
Professional training (e.g., workshops, seminars, or academic courses)	78.6%	21.4%
Clear understanding of alternative assessment practices e.g., peer assessment	35.8%	64.3%
Personal commitment and enthusiasm	71.4%	28.6%
Support from school management	35.7%	64.3%
Exchange of comments among colleagues	78.6%	21.4%
Provision of resources (e.g., teaching relief and grants)	21.4%	78.6%

As can be seen in Table 11, the most common factors inhibiting writing assessment consisted of teaching duties

(71.4%), design of curriculum (51.1%), and lack of initiative and motivation (35.7%).

Table 11. *Frequency counts and percentages of factors inhibiting writing assessment*

	%	
	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>
Teaching duties	71.4%	28.6%
Teacher autonomy to try out alternative assessment practices	21.4%	78.6%
Lack of knowledge base and understanding	28.6%	71.4%
Lack of initiative and motivation	35.7%	64.3%
Marking	21.4%	78.6%
Design of curriculum	57.1%	42.9%
Lack of support from senior management	14.3%	85.7%
Appraisal system	7.1%	78.6%

The results of the interview questions regarding the writing assessment practices were included here. Three participants agreed that self-assessment in writing is an effective practice, furthermore one participant stated that assessing process writing is valuable for improving the students' poor writing skills. Regarding this, two participants shared their opinions about good writing assessment practices they have tried out before.

I believe that a rubric is a must when assessing an exam. But in classroom practices, keeping writing projects are also good idea as they also show the progress of the target group [Participant 1].

I often want my students to compile portfolios which include all of their assignments written before and review their progress in writing. Thus, they can see their strengths and weaknesses in this skill and learn from their experiences [Participant 2].

For the last question of the interview, the participants mentioned possible ways to improve their current writing assessment practices. Both Participant 1 and Participant 4 touched upon the importance of training in this regard.

Being self-motivated and taking part in the training on assessment to facilitate my writing assessment, support from the colleagues and school management would be better for improving my current writing assessment practices [Participant 1].

Following the current trends in language teaching and specifically writing assessment will be helpful to keep up to date. Additionally, participating in webinars and keeping in contact with fellow language/writing instructors will be beneficial in learning various writing assessment practices [Participant 4].

Discussion

This study investigated the writing assessment literacies of English language instructors working at a state university in Turkey in terms of their knowledge, conceptions, and practices. The findings revealed that the majority of the participants thought that writing assessment could help improve student writing, specifically with regard to coherence and accuracy, which

aligns with what Lam (2019) reported. However, different from Lam (2019) the participants in the current study also reported that use of appropriate vocabulary is highly likely to improve in student writing as well. Regarding knowledge base of the participants, they reportedly have considerable knowledge of washback and classroom-based assessment similar to what Lam (2019) found, which is different from the results stated in the relevant literature (e.g., Campbell & Evans, 2010). The findings of this study revealed that participants considered themselves knowledgeable on validity and reliability, which is on the contrary grounds with Campbell and Evan's (2010) study, however in their study, the participants were pre-service teachers; therefore, they may lack the necessary theoretical knowledge regarding validity and reliability due to being inexperienced.

Similar to what Lam (2019) found, the respondents disapproved of a writing process that does not involve collaboration and that is based on one single draft. In fact, they emphasize the importance of feedback and using a marking rubric, which aligns with Lam's (2019) findings. Additionally, most of the instructors in the study believe that writing is a difficult process that takes time to grade and is quite subjective. Despite

these difficulties that they mentioned, the majority of them still believe that writing assessment is done for and as learning. Considering that almost all of the participants reportedly use assessment as learning to a large extent and assessment for learning to a certain extent, their beliefs of the purposes of writing assessment and their self-reported practices are in line with each other. Furthermore, a great number of participants stated to have acquired these assessment concepts, however when defining these concepts, there were some ambiguities encountered. Although the instructors reported having acquired assessment concepts such as assessment of learning, assessment for learning, and assessment as learning mostly during their bachelor's degree, a small number of teachers referred to cognitive skills, which highlights the importance of training as the literature suggests (e.g., Hatipoğlu, 2010; Mede & Atay, 2017; Ölmezer-Öztürk, 2018). It must, however, also be kept in mind that more than half of the participants consider training challenging as they are restricted in time because of their teaching duties and the design of their curriculum. Consequently, the training provided for teachers should mainly draw on practical elements rather than theory as Ölmezer-Öztürk, Öztürk and Aydın

(2021) suggest. Also, the training should be relevant to contextual and individual needs since participants also mentioned that there was not any relevant professional training about writing assessment. Furthermore, to facilitate writing assessment, managers should provide a space for professional training. According to the responses of the participants, exchanging comments among colleagues should be fostered as well.

Overall, it might be stated that instructors in the current study are assessment-literate in terms of writing assessment to some extent. They mostly had fundamental knowledge regarding assessment of learning and assessment for learning and reportedly used them to a degree in their practice. They also need more support from their management and more provision of resources to fully effectuate their writing assessment. Furthermore, the training that they receive for writing assessment should also be based on real-life practices rather than theory and be relevant to their contexts.

Limitations

This study was subjected to several limitations. First, the findings in the current study are based on the self-reported data gathered from the participants, which may

have changed if actual practices of teachers were observed as well. Second, one must be cautious when interpreting the data here as the findings are based on instructors' statements rather than their actual practices. In order to fully comprehend the writing assessment literacy of teachers, more research that takes practical elements into consideration is needed. Also, the sample was characterized by English language teachers working at tertiary level in Edirne. Considering that all teachers were teachers of adults, it could be assumed that the findings may not apply to teachers of younger students. In addition, as the sample was selected from only one city, the results may not be generable to the rest of the country.

Conclusion and Further Suggestions

This research has provided a number of insights in terms of instructors' knowledge base, perceptions, and practices about writing assessment at tertiary level. In this vein, it can be asserted that to cultivate

instructors' assessment literacies (1) it is crucial to incorporate the assessment training as professional development along with cooperation with colleagues, (2) to adopt an applicable design of curriculum by utilizing multiple writing assessment types, 3) to create space for instructors by eliminating time constraints. On the other hand, it can be recommended that with the help of more research taking actual practices into consideration, instructors could enhance their knowledge of writing assessment, and how actually teachers conduct writing assessment could be observed.

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From Preschool to Primary School: The Effect of Students' Early Literacy Skills on Reading and
Reading Comprehension Performance

Chapter 2

From Preschool to Primary School: The Effect of Students' Early Literacy Skills on Reading and Reading Comprehension Performance¹

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Introduction

Some of the learning in individuals takes place spontaneously in an informal way, while some of it takes place in a formal education environment. Reading is defined as a part and the most basic element of learning and academic life. In addition, reading is generally defined as a skill that starts with school life and continues throughout life (Akyol, 2015; Çiğdemir & Akyol, 2021; Elliot & Gibbs, 2008). The fact that the modern age is the age of information, technology and communication requires the individual to be an analytical thinker, researcher,

questioner, problem solver, able to access information easily, interpret and synthesise the information learned (Sağlam, Baş, & Akyol, 2020). In today's world, children's being a good literate enables them to gain these characteristics required by the age. It is possible with the acquisition of early literacy skills, which are accepted as the preliminary preparation of literacy skills, which are expected to be gained in the pre-school education process, which is the period before the primary school process, where the literacy process begins (Ekinci-Vural & Kocabaş, 2016; Teale & Sulzby, 1987; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). Many studies on reading skills with preschool children emphasise that these skills are related to each other and that they are a predictor of the child's academic skills in the following years (Kargin et al., 2017; Lancaster, 2007; Neumann, Hood, Ford, & Neumann, 2011). As a matter of fact, the use of the 'Matthew Effect', known as 'the approach that the rich get richer and the poor get poorer' in the field of economics, in the educational literature also supports this (Stanovich, 1986).

The Matthew Effect means that children who start school life more qualified

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in terms of academic skills at the beginning of school life continue at a similarly better level. On the contrary, studies in the literature indicate that children who start their educational life behind their peers will also show a level of success behind their peers in their ongoing school life. In the literature, there are many studies supporting that children who start primary school with early literacy skills are more successful in reading and academic skills compared to children who start primary school without acquiring these skills (Morgan & Fuchs, 2007; Nordstrom et al., 2016; Pfof et al., 2014; Retelsdorf et al., 2014; Scarborough, 2002; Schiefele, Schaffner, Moller, & Wigfield, 2012). It is also stated that the difference between these two groups increases over time and the gap gradually widens. It is stated that children with good achievement at the beginning become more successful, while those with low achievement become increasingly unsuccessful (Pfof et al., 2014; Retelsdorf et al., 2014). In the literature, there are many studies indicating that early literacy skills are an important predictor of reading and writing skills (Aarnoutse, Van Leeuwe, & Verhoeven, 2005; Casey & Howe, 2002; Elliott & Olliff, 2008; Scarborough et al., 2009; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 2001).

In Turkey, literacy teaching takes place in the first grade of primary school. Studies showing that children who have acquired the skills that can be a prerequisite for reading and writing in the first grade will learn easily, love school, be more willing to learn and be more academically successful in this process are frequently encountered in the literature (Doyle, 2009; Han et al., 2011). However, the opposite is the case for children who start primary school without acquiring early literacy skills. Children who start first grade without acquiring this skill have difficulty and cannot learn easily because they are not ready for the reading and writing process, and this situation will affect their attitudes and behaviours towards school and reading, leading to academic failure (Catts et al., 2015; Foorman et al., 2015; Kush et al., 2005; Altinkaynak Özen, 2019). Considering that students' early literacy skills in the preschool period are predictive of their future academic skills, it is of great importance to increase the number of studies on the Matthew effect. It is known that studies on the Matthew Effect are limited in Turkish culture. However, it is emphasised that this approach has a critical importance in increasing the academic success of students and the necessity of conducting more studies on this subject (Ergül et al., 2022). For all these reasons, this study aims to examine the effect of

early literacy skills of preschool to primary school students on reading and reading comprehension performance.

Method

This study, which was conducted to examine the effect of early literacy skills of preschool to primary school students on reading performance, was designed with the relational research model, one of the quantitative research methods. In studies conducted with the relational research model, data collection is carried out in order to decide whether there is a relationship between two or more variables and, if so, at what level this relationship is (Frankel & Wallen, 2005; Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009).

Participants

The study group consists of second grade primary school students studying in primary schools in Edirne in the 2022-2023 academic year. Before data collection in this study, the sample size was determined with the G*Power 3.1.9.7 programme with reference to the research conducted by Ergül et al. (2022). In the programme, the effect size F value $d=0.45$ found by Ergül et al. (2022) was taken as basis, and 95% confidence level and $\alpha=0.05$ were accepted. In this direction, the G*power programme suggested that 81 second grade primary school students is a sufficient number for the research sample (Akbulut,

2021; Özçomak & Çebi, 2017). However, since the possibility of a 20% randomised error was taken into consideration, the sample was determined as 99. As a result, 99 people who had previously received preschool education were included in the study. Of the students in the study group, 12.1% were 7 years old, 71.7% were 8 years old, 16.2% were 9 years old, 52.5% were girls and 47.5% were boys. Of the students' mothers, 2% were between the ages of 25-30, 33.3% were between the ages of 30-35, and 64.6% were 35 years and older; 14.1% of their fathers were between the ages of 31-35, and 85.8% were 35 years and older. The educational status of the parents was as follows: 10.1% of the mothers were primary school graduates, 7.1% were secondary school graduates, 29.3% were high school graduates, 29%, 50.5% were university graduates and 3% were postgraduate graduates; 6.1% of the fathers were primary school graduates, 9.1% were secondary school graduates, 36.4% were high school graduates, 45.5% were university graduates and 3.0% were postgraduate graduates. In addition, 1% of the families in the study group were in the lower socio-economic status (SES), 98% in the middle SES and 1% in the upper SES.

Data Collection Tools

In this study, 'Informal Reading Inventory', 'Error Analysis Inventory' and 'Early Literacy Skills Assessment Tool Teacher Form' were used as data collection tools.

The Informal Reading Inventory- FOOE: The Informal Reading Inventory is a measurement tool that consists of different texts in terms of subject and difficulty level and provides the opportunity to reveal and evaluate students' strengths and weaknesses. In order to evaluate the reading and reading comprehension performances of the students, the text 'Gamze and Her Friend', which is a narrative text consisting of 122 words, was read aloud to the student and her performance was recorded with a voice recorder. After the student finished reading aloud, reading comprehension questions consisting of 10 questions about the text were given to the student and he/she was asked to answer them in writing. The correct answer to each question was 10 points and the highest score that could be obtained from the whole test was 100 and the lowest score was 0. In order to evaluate the reading comprehension performance, the same application was repeated for the text named 'Our Body' consisting of 76 words from informative texts. In this text, there were 5 questions in total, and the

highest score that could be obtained from the test was accepted as 100 and the lowest score as 0, with each correct answer being 20 points and incorrect answers being 0 points. Among the categories in the inventory, at the Independent Reading Level, the child can comprehend 90% of the text and can make 1 reading error per 100 words of the text. If the child can understand more than 90% of the text, a reading error of more than 1 word does not change the independent reading level. At this level, the child's correct answers to the questions are expected to be 90% and above. At the instructional reading level, children are expected not to make more than 5 errors and are expected to comprehend 75% of the text. If the comprehension of the text is above 75%, the number of reading errors does not change the child's being at the instructional level. Children at the instructional reading level read more slowly than children at the independent reading level. Woods and Moe (2007) stated that the instructional reading level consists of two stages; 95-98% accuracy in word recognition and 75-89% accuracy in comprehension is the definite instructional level, 91-94% accuracy in word recognition and 51-74% accuracy in comprehension is the transitional instructional level. At the Difficulty Level, the child is expected to make 10 or more errors in 100 words and the answers to the

questions are expected to be below 50% (McKenna & Stahl, 2003; Woods & Moe, 2007). In the text read at the level of difficulty, the child makes 10 or more errors out of 100 words. The child is expected to understand 50% of the text and the answers to the questions asked are expected to be below 50% correct (Applegate, Quinn & Applegate, 2008; Gunning, 2003; McKenna & Stahl, 2003).

Early Literacy Skills Assessment Questionnaire Teacher Form (EROBDA-ÖF): In the study, Burak, Koç Çınar, Sert, and Özdemir (2023) developed the EROBDA-ÖF in order to evaluate the early literacy skills of preschool children by teachers, and a validity and reliability study was conducted. EROBDA-ÖF is a 5-point Likert scale (1= very bad, 2= bad, 3= average, 4= good, 5= very good) measuring five sub-areas: Phonological Awareness, Word Knowledge, Letter Knowledge, Print Awareness and Listening Comprehension. This measurement tool was developed to enable preschool teachers to evaluate the early literacy skills of 48-72-month-old children based on their own observations. In the scale development phase, the study was conducted with a total of 544 preschool children equally from schools with lower, middle and upper socioeconomic status in Edirne province and its districts. In the

collection of research data, EROBDA-ÖF was used for validity and reliability studies and 'Early Literacy Test' developed by Kargın, Ergül, Büyüköztürk and Güldenoğlu (2015) was used to ensure the criterion validity of this measurement tool. In addition, it was determined that the EROBDA-ÖF subscales provided construct validity within themselves. The relationship between EROBDA-ÖF and EROT was analysed and it was found that there was a positive relationship between the total and sub-dimensions of both scales. According to this finding, it was found that the criterion validity of the EROBDA-ÖF developed by the researchers was provided. In this direction, it can be said that the measurement tool has a very high level of validity. The Cronbach's alpha value of the internal consistency coefficient for all five subscales was found to be between .92 and .96. Accordingly, it was seen that the Early Literacy Skills Assessment Questionnaire Teacher Form (EROBDA-ÖF) has a very high level of reliability.

False Analysis Inventory: The 'False Analysis Inventory' developed by Ekwall and Shanker (1988) and adapted to Turkish culture by Akyol (2011) aimed to determine the errors made during reading aloud and the vocabulary and phonological knowledge. The texts used in the application of the Error Analysis Inventory

were selected from the texts in the FOOE, which are appropriate for the grade level of the children. In determining the reading level; 'Number of Misread Words' and 'Reading and Comprehension Levels and Percentages' tables were used. The narrative text 'Gamze and Her Friend' consists of 122 words, and according to the 'Error Analysis Inventory', if the student makes 10 or more errors in the text read aloud, he/she is in the Worry Level, if he/she makes 3-9 errors, he/she is in the Instructional Level, and if he/she makes 0-2 errors, he/she is in the Free Reading Level category. The text 'Our Body', which is an informative text, consists of 76 words, and when the student read this text aloud, according to the 'Error Analysis Inventory', if he/she made 8 or more errors, he/she was in the Concern Level, if he/she made 2-7 errors, he/she was in the Instructional Level, and if he/she made 0-1 error, he/she was in the Free Reading Level category.

Data Collection Process

In order to determine the reading fluency of second grade primary school students, the Error Analysis Inventory-FOOE were applied for selected narrative and informative texts. After interviewing with the preschool teachers, the children whom the teacher was sure to remember well were included in the study group. Whether the teacher remembered the child

or not was determined as an important criterion in determining the study group. Considering the answers given after the interview with the teacher, the teacher was asked to fill out the EROBDA-ÖF for the students whom the teacher was certain that the teacher remembered. With the EROBDA-ÖF developed by Burak, Koç-Çınar, Özdemir, and Sert (2023), the teacher was asked to evaluate the child with the last items in the subscales, which were not included in the scale but were added as a general evaluation of each subscale of the scale.

Data Analysis

The data collected in the study were analysed with SPSS-27.0 package programme. In the analyses, it was determined that the normality of the data distribution was in the range of -1.96 to +1.96, which is accepted as normal distribution, and therefore parametric analyses were preferred (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). For this reason, One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine the difference between the variables in the study. When a significant difference was found in these analyses, Post Hoc LSD test was used to determine the source of the difference. For more than two variables with a significant difference, the eta-squared effect size was taken into consideration (Cohen, 1992).

When evaluating the effect size, the range of .000 and .003 indicates that there is no effect size, .010 and .039 indicates a weak effect size, .060 and .110 indicates a

moderate effect size, and .140 and .200 indicates a strong effect size (Cohen, 1988).

Findings

Okul öncesinden ilkokula öğrencilerin erken okuryazarlık becerisinin okuma ve okuduğunu anlama performansına etkisinin incelenmesi

amacıyla yapılan çalışmadan elde edilen bulgu sonuçlarına yer verilmiştir.

Table 1.

One-Way Analysis of Variance for EROBDA-ÖF score according to students' BMOH category

		n	\bar{x}	sd	F	p	η^2	Post-Hoc LSD
EROBDA-ÖF Phonological Awareness	1 Free reading level	27	3,96	,940	4,179	,018**	.08	1>3
	2 Instructional level	42	3,52	1,087				
	3 Concern level	30	3,17	1,053				
	Total	99	3,54	1,072				
EROBDA-ÖF Vocabulary Knowledge	1 Free reading level	27	4,44	,751	7,629	,001**	.13	1>2 1>3
	2 Instructional level	42	3,81	,969				
	3 Concern level	30	3,50	1,009				
	Total	99	3,89	,989				
EROBDA-ÖF Letter Knowledge	1 Free reading level	27	4,00	,832	6,995	,001**	.14	1>2 1>3
	2 Instructional level	42	3,45	1,041				
	3 Concern level	30	3,03	,999				
	Total	99	3,47	1,034				
EROBDA-ÖF Writing Awareness	1 Free reading level	27	4,41	,694	9,951	,000**	.17	1>2 1>3
	2 Instructional level	42	3,74	1,014				
	3 Concern level	30	3,30	1,022				
	Total	99	3,79	1,023				
EROBDA-ÖF Listening Comprehension	1 Free reading level	27	4,37	,792	5,110	,008**	.10	1>3
	2 Instructional level	42	4,00	,855				
	3 Concern level	30	3,60	1,070				
	Total	99	3,98	,947				
EROBDA-ÖF Total	1 Free reading level	27	4,23	,769	7,781	,001**	.14	1>2 1>3
	2 Instructional level	42	3,70	,927				
	3 Concern level	30	3,30	,933				
	Total	99	3,72	,948				

BMOH: Informative text reading error categories

EROBDA-ÖF: Early literacy skills assessment questionnaire teacher form

It is seen that, according to the category of Informative Text Reading Error (ITRER), the second grade primary school children

who had received preschool education before who were included in the study were found to have higher scores in EROBDA-ÖF

phonological scores ($F(2-96)=4.179$; $p>0.01$; $\eta^2=0.08$), EROBDA-ÖF lexical knowledge scores ($F(2-96)=7.629$; $p>0.01$; $\eta^2=0.13$), EROBDA-ÖF letter knowledge scores ($F(2-96)=6.995$; $p>0.01$; $\eta^2=0.14$), EROBDA-ÖF print awareness scores ($F(2-96)=9.951$; $p>0.01$; $\eta^2=0.17$), EROBDA-ÖF listening comprehension scores ($F(2-96)=5.110$; $p>0.01$; $\eta^2=0.10$), EROBDA-ÖF total

scores ($F(2-96)=7.781$; $p>0.05$; $\eta^2=0.14$). In other words, it can be said that the early literacy skills of the second grade primary school students with a good reading performance towards the informative text are also at a good level, while the early literacy skills of the second grade primary school students with a poor reading performance are at a poor level in parallel with this (Table 1).

Table 2.
One-Way Analysis of Variance for EROBDA-ÖF score according to students' ÖMOH category

		n	\bar{x}	sd	F	p	η^2	Post-Hoc LSD
EROBDA-ÖF	1 Free reading level	29	4,10	,900	6,967	,001**	.13	1>2
Phonological	2 Instructional level	55	3,36	1,025				1>3
Awareness	3 Concern level	15	3,07	1,163				
	Total	99	3,54	1,072				
EROBDA-ÖF	1 Free reading level	29	4,45	,736	9,443	,000**	.16	1>2
Vocabulary	2 Instructional level	55	3,76	,962				1>3
Knowledge	3 Concern level	15	3,27	1,033				
	Total	99	3,89	,989				
EROBDA-ÖF	1 Free reading level	29	4,10	,772	10,316	,000**	.18	1>2
Letter	2 Instructional level	55	3,31	,979				1>3
Knowledge	3 Concern level	15	2,87	1,125				
	Total	99	3,47	1,034				
EROBDA-ÖF	1 Free reading level	29	4,45	,686	13,830	,000**	.22	1>2
Writing	2 Instructional level	55	3,65	,966				1>3
Awareness	3 Concern level	15	3,00	1,069				2>3
	Total	99	3,79	1,023				
EROBDA-ÖF	1 Free reading level	29	4,38	,775	7,782	,001**	.14	1>2
Listening	2 Instructional level	55	3,96	,860				1>3
Comprehension	3 Concern level	15	3,27	1,163				2>3
	Total	99	3,98	,947				
EROBDA-ÖF	1 Free reading level	29	4,29	,727	10,693	,000**	.18	1>2
Total	2 Instructional level	55	3,60	,896				1>3
	3 Concern level	15	3,10	,997				
	Total	99	3,72	,948				

ÖMOH: Narrative text reading error category

EROBDA-ÖF: Early literacy skills assessment questionnaire teacher form

It is analysed, it can be seen that second-grade primary school children who had previously received preschool education were found to have higher scores in EROBDA-ÖF Phonological Awareness scores ($F(2-96)= 6.967$; $p<.01$; $\eta^2=0.13$), EROBDA-PFC lexical knowledge scores ($F(2-96)= 9.443$; $p<.01$; $\eta^2=0.16$), EROBDA-PFC letter knowledge scores ($F(2-96)= 10.316$; $p<.01$; $\eta^2=0.18$), EROBDA-LFS print awareness scores ($F(2-96) = 13.830$; $p<.01$; $\eta^2=0.22$), EROBDA-LFS

listening comprehension scores ($F(2-96) = 7.782$; $p<.01$; $\eta^2=0.14$), EROBDA-ESF early literacy total scores ($F(2-96)=10.693$; $p<.05$; $\eta^2=0.18$). In other words, it can be said that the early literacy skills of the second grade primary school students who have a good reading performance towards the narrative text are also at a good level, and the early literacy skills of the second grade primary school students who have a poor reading performance are also at a poor level in the preschool period (Table 2).

Table 3

One-Way Analysis of Variance of EROBDA-ÖF according to students' OABM category

		n	\bar{x}	sd	F	p	η^2	Post-Hoc LSD
EROBDA-ÖF Phonological Awareness	1 Difficulty level	43	3,07	1,163	5,693	,001**	.15	2>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	31	3,81	,910				3>1
	3 Precise instructional level	15	3,93	,704				4>1
	4 Independent level	10	4,10	,876				
	Total	99	3,54	1,072				
EROBDA-ÖF Vocabulary Knowledge	1 Difficulty level	43	3,40	1,072	7,655	,000**	.19	2>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	31	4,23	,717				3>1
	3 Precise instructional level	15	4,33	,724				4>1
	4 Independent level	10	4,30	,823				
	Total	99	3,89	,989				
EROBDA-ÖF Letter Knowledge	1 Difficulty level	43	2,91	1,042	10,296	,000**	.24	2>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	31	3,81	,833				3>1
	3 Precise instructional level	15	3,93	,704				4>1
	4 Independent level	10	4,20	,789				
	Total	99	3,47	1,034				
EROBDA-ÖF Writing Awareness	1 Difficulty level	43	3,21	1,013	10,640	,000**	.25	2>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	31	4,19	,873				3>1
	3 Precise instructional level	15	4,20	,676				4>1
	4 Independent level	10	4,40	,699				
	Total	99	3,79	1,023				
EROBDA-ÖF Listening Comprehension	1 Difficulty level	43	3,60	1,050	4,577	,005**	.12	2>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	31	4,19	,792				3>1
	3 Precise instructional level	15	4,33	,724				4>1
	4 Independent level	10	4,40	,699				
	Total	99	3,98	,947				
EROBDA-ÖF Total	1 Difficulty level	43	3,22	,979	9,255	,000**	.22	2>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	31	4,04	,756				3>1
	3 Precise instructional level	15	4,15	,653				4>1
	4 Independent level	10	4,28	,737				
	Total	99	3,72	,948				

OABM: Reading comprehension informative text

EROBDA-ÖF: Early literacy skills assessment questionnaire teacher form

It is analysed, it is seen that second grade primary school children who received pre-school education before, according to the category of Reading Comprehension Informative Text (RICT), had higher scores in EROBDA-ESF Phonological Awareness ($F(3-95)= 5.693$; $p<0.01$; $\eta^2=0.152$), EROBDA-ESF lexical knowledge ($F(3-95)= 7.655$; $p<0.01$; $\eta^2=0.195$), in EROBDA-SFC letter knowledge scores ($F(2-96)= 10.296$; $p>0.01$; $\eta^2=0.245$), in EROBDA-SFC print awareness scores ($F(3-95)= 10.640$; $p<0.01$; $\eta^2=0.251$), EROBDA-LFS

listening comprehension scores ($F(3-95)=4.577$; $p<0.01$; $\eta^2=0.126$), EROBDA-LFS early literacy total scores ($F(3-95)=9.255$; $p<0.05$; $\eta^2=0.226$). In other words, it can be said that the early literacy skills of second grade primary school students with good reading comprehension performance towards the informative text are also at a good level, while the early literacy skills of second grade primary school students with poor reading comprehension performance are at a poor level in parallel with this (Table 3).

Table 4
One-Way Analysis of Variance of EROBDA-ÖF according to students' OAÖM category

		n	\bar{x}	sd	F	p	η^2	Post-Hoc LSD
EROBDA-OF Phonological Awareness	1 Difficulty level	28	2,86	1,079	10,044	,000	.241	3>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	32	3,41	1,073				3>2
	3 Precise instructional level	31	4,13	,670				4>1
	4 Independent level	8	4,13	,835				2>1
	Total	99	3,54	1,072				
EROBDA-OF Vocabulary Knowledge	1 Difficulty level	28	3,25	,967	11,998	,000	.275	2>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	32	3,72	,958				4>1
	3 Precise instructional level	31	4,48	,626				4>2
	4 Independent level	8	4,50	,756				3>1
	Total	99	3,89	,989				3>2
EROBDA-OF Letter Knowledge	1 Difficulty level	28	2,86	1,008	10,506	,000	.249	3>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	32	3,28	1,023				3>2
	3 Precise instructional level	31	4,10	,700				4>1
	4 Independent level	8	4,00	,756				4>2
	Total	99	3,47	1,034				
EROBDA-OF Writing Awareness	1 Difficulty level	28	3,14	,891	13,484	,000	.299	3>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	32	3,56	1,076				3>2
	3 Precise instructional level	31	4,52	,508				4>1
	4 Independent level	8	4,13	,991				
	Total	99	3,79	1,023				
EROBDA-OF Listening Comprehension	1 Difficulty level	28	3,46	,962	9,304	,000	.227	3>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	32	3,78	,941				3>2
	3 Precise instructional level	31	4,55	,568				4>1
	4 Independent level	8	4,38	,916				4>2
	Total	99	3,98	,947				
EROBDA-ÖF Total	1 Difficulty level	28	3,09	,894	13,724	,000	.302	2>1
	2 Transitioning instructional level	32	3,54	,942				3>1
	3 Precise instructional level	31	4,35	,528				3>2
	4 Independent level	8	4,25	,761				4>1
	Total	99	3,72	,948				4>2

OAÖM: Reading comprehension narrative text

EROBDA-ÖF: Early literacy skills assessment questionnaire teacher form

It is analysed, according to the category of narrative text reading comprehension (STRC), second grade primary school children who had previously received pre-school education were found to have higher scores in EROBDA-ESF Phonological Awareness ($F(3-95)= 10.044$; $p<0.01$; $\eta^2=0.241$), EROBDA-ESF lexical knowledge ($F(3-95)= 11.998$; $p<0.01$; $\eta^2=0.275$), EROBDA-PFS letter knowledge scores ($F(2-96)= 10.506$; $p>0.01$; $\eta^2=0.249$), EROBDA-PFS print awareness scores ($F(3-95) = 13.484$; $p<0.01$; $\eta^2=0.299$), EROBDA-LFS listening comprehension scores ($F(3-95) 9.304$; $p<0.01$; $\eta^2=0.227$), EROBDA-LFS early literacy total scores ($F(3-95)=13.724$; $p<0.05$; $\eta^2=0.302$). In this case, it can be said that the early literacy skills of second grade primary school students with good reading comprehension performance towards the narrative text are also at a good level, while the early literacy skills of second grade primary school students with poor listening comprehension performance are also at a poor level (Table 4).

Result and Discussion

According to the findings obtained from the study, it can be said that children with low early literacy skills in preschool period have low reading performance in the second grade of primary school, on the contrary, children with high early literacy

skills in preschool period have high reading performance in the second grade of primary school. . In this direction, it can be said that the Matthew Effect was tested in support of the Matthew Effect in the reading skills of Turkish-speaking students whose mother tongue is Turkish. In other words, the fact that there is a difference between a child with poor early literacy skills in preschool and a child with a good performance in early literacy skills in academic skills in primary school, and that this difference increases gradually, that is, a significant difference in skills such as fluent reading and reading comprehension, can be considered to clearly reveal the existence of the Matthew Effect in the Turkish education system. It can be interpreted that the difference between children's reading skills does not decrease over time with the change of grade level, on the contrary, it increases even more.

In the literature, there are studies that support the Matthew Effect, which states that children who have a good start to school life and gain positive experiences will increase their desire to learn and read and show a high level of success throughout their educational life, and that children who do not have a good start to school life and lag behind their peers will lose their desire to learn over time and will show increasingly low success (Retelsdorf

et al., 2014; Schiefele et al., 2012; Burns & Kidd, 2010; Nordström et al., 2016). In another study confirming the Matthew effect, Orsolini, Fanari, Cerracchio, and Famiglietti (2009) examined the phonological reading and word reading of Italian children at the primary school level and reported that children with poor reading performance lag behind their peers in this regard in the future. Lamb (2011), in his study on the Matthew Effect in English language education, stated that children who do not learn sufficiently at school will remain abstinent and lose interest in learning over time, and thus may become increasingly more unsuccessful than their peers. Bennett et al. (2003) stated that a child who is labelled as a 'slow learner, a child who cannot learn' at school may fall behind his/her peers because he/she may not make enough effort to learn due to a decrease in his/her belief in achievement, and may have difficulties in both work life and social relations when he/she grows up and becomes an adult as in school life. The fact that a child who falls behind academically may also fall behind in professional life and social emotional skills in adulthood can be explained by the Matthew Effect. Similarly, Carreker, Neuhaus, Swank, Johnson, Monfils, and Montemayor (2007) stated that the reading comprehension development of good readers at the primary school level gets

richer over time, while the reading comprehension development of poor readers does not improve much. Thus, it was emphasised that weak readers show a relatively weaker reading performance over time and this spectrum-shaped growth model in reading performance is explained by the Matthew Effect. In a similar way to this study, Ergül et al. (2022) examined the reading performance of children at the primary school level and found that the Matthew effect was confirmed with the gradual increase in the difference between children with different levels of reading performance. In this case, it can be said that similar results were obtained with this study. In another study that can be explained by the Matthew Effect, Inoue et al. (2023) examined early literacy skills in Chinese and Japanese Kanji alphabets in primary school level children with high phonological awareness. It was stated that early literacy skills affect reading and are predictors of reading skills in both languages. Another study in Australia, in which results consistent with the study were found, found that there was a difference between 'intermediate readers' and 'poor readers' in student performance at the end of the first grade and at the end of the second grade in skills such as vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, phonological awareness in primary school level children, and that

intermediate readers had higher scores at the end of the second grade (Lathouras, Westerveld, and Trembath 2019). In New Zealand, Prochnow, Tunmer, and Chapman (2013) stated that early literacy skills related to literacy are related to the Matthew Effect. As a matter of fact, as a result that is in parallel with the findings of this study, it was stated that children with poor early literacy skills in preschool period gradually fall behind in reading success in the following years. Pallante, Kim (2013) examined the effect of a comprehensive literacy curriculum on the language and reading achievement of Spanish-speaking children over the course of a year in a study conducted with primary school students in Chile and found that children who performed well in early literacy skills increased at a faster rate. It was emphasised that the Matthew Effect could be explained by the fact that the children who achieved success became increasingly successful and scored better than the children who performed poorly.

It can be said that the number of studies on early literacy skills has increased in Turkey in recent years. In the literature,

it is known that there are studies emphasising that early literacy skills affect academic achievement. It is thought that early literacy skills, which have a large place in the updated pre-school education programme, can positively affect children's academic achievement at later stages. With the 2024 Preschool Education Programme, it is thought that the Matthew Effect will gain a greater meaning and shed light on new studies on the subject.

Limitations

The retrospective collection of the data can also be considered as a limitation of this study. Considering the economy in terms of time, the early literacy skills of primary school second grade students in the preschool period are limited to the answers given by their preschool teachers to the EROBDA-ÖF. New studies can be conducted by taking the performance of children's early literacy skills in a wide time interval. In this direction, it is considered important to increase the number of longitudinal studies on the subject.

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Investigation of the Relationship Between Preschool Children's Prosocial Behavior Towards Children
with Special Needs and Peer Acceptance

**INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN PRESCHOOL CHILDREN'S PROSOCIAL
BEHAVIOR TOWARDS CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL
NEEDS AND PEER ACCEPTANCE**

Emel Özdemir , Yakup Burak

Chapter 3

Investigation of the Relationship Between Preschool Children's Prosocial Behavior Towards Children with Special Needs and Peer Acceptance¹

EMEL ÖZDEMİR² , YAKUP BURAK³

Introduction

Individuals with special needs have to cope with many problems throughout their lives. Among these problems, the most tiring one for them is not being accepted by the society. It is known that the effects of the negativities that may be experienced in this period will be long-lasting, especially since the experiences experienced in childhood have permanent traces (Yıldırım & Özyürek, 2023; Yavuz, 2016). For this reason, establishing quality relationships with peers in the most critical period of their lives is of great importance for their future. As a matter of fact, studies in the relevant literature show that the positive peer relationship of the child with special needs will contribute to all areas from mental health to academic skills (Gülay, 2009; Kostelnik et al., 2005;

Özdemir & Burak, 2023). It is known that the acceptance of the child with special needs by his/her peers has a critical importance in his/her life as well as the prosocial behavior to be exhibited to the child with special needs. Prosocial behavior and peer acceptance are interrelated skills (Ensor et al., 2011). Discovering the environmental conditions that can help develop the child's positive social behaviors and reduce behavioral problems is of great importance to ensure a happy and peaceful childhood for the child (Chu et al., 2024; Jansson et al., 2022).

The fact that a child with special needs has a childhood without negative experiences and without his/her difference interfering with his/her social relationships has an impact on the quality of his/her future life (Chu et al., 2024; Zhao et al., 2020). For this reason, we should attach importance to developing a school environment that supports the positive social behaviors of children with special needs and to increase their self-esteem and happiness. To increase this success in the educational context, it is necessary not only to develop cognitive skills but also to strengthen socio-emotional skills (Gómez-Ortiz et al., 2017; Luna, 2020; Marchante et al., 2022). It is important that all stakeholders involved in education provide

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children with an environment where they feel valued and free from discrimination. It is especially important that children who come together with their peers are accepted within the group.

When the factors affecting peer acceptance are evaluated, it is possible to say that the child has some prejudices against difference (Coelho et al., 2017; Derman-Sparks & Edwards, 2010; Ferreira et al., 2017; Vuran, 2017). Preschool children who do not have enough knowledge and experience about special needs generally do not know what to do and may give wrong reactions (Gurian 2010; Zakai-Mashiach et al., 2020). For example, the reaction of a child with autism may be interpreted as incomprehensible by children in this period. In this case, children may immediately label and reject the child with autism. Studies emphasize that the most important determinant is the child's communication skills rather than the child's special needs (Sali, 2014). For example, a child with Down syndrome who is described as calm and harmonious is loved and protected, while a child with Down syndrome who is described as stubborn and aggressive is rejected. For this reason, it is possible to say that the attitude and behavior of the child with special needs is more important than the special needs (Blaskova & Gibson, 2024; Boer et al., 2013; Derman-Sparks & Edwards, 2010;

Gülay-Ogelman et al., 2024; Yavuz, 2016; Woodgate et al., 2019).

It is of great importance for an individual with special needs to encounter prosocial behaviors at the earliest period of his/her life, to interact positively with his/her peers, to gain social acceptance and to prevent bullying (Güçük & Yılmaz, 2019; Zorbaz et al., 2022). Based on all these considerations, it is considered extremely important to examine the relationship between social acceptance and prosocial behavior and to prepare the intervention for this relationship. For this reason, it is thought that the increase in similar studies on prosocial behavior and peer acceptance will be a road map for intervening in many difficulties that children with special needs will experience in social life at the earliest period.

Method

This study was conducted to examine the relationship between preschool children's prosocial behavior towards children with special needs and peer acceptance. In line with this purpose, this part of the study includes the research model, study group, data collection tools, data collection process, data analysis, statistical methods and techniques.

Research Model

The study, which was conducted to examine the relationship between

preschool children's prosocial behavior towards children with special needs and peer acceptance, was designed with the relational research method, one of the quantitative research methods. Relational research model: It is a model that indicates the presence and/or degree of change between two or more variables (Karasar, 2016).

Participants

The study group of the research consisted of 267 children from private and public kindergartens and preschools affiliated to the Ministry of National Education in Ankara province and its districts, which were determined by the "convenience sampling" method. This technique is a non-random sampling method in which participants who are close to the researcher or easy to reach voluntarily participate in the study (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2015). Demographic characteristics of the children in the study group: 52.4% of the 267 children in the study sample were girls and 47.6% were boys; 33% were 4 years old, 31.1% were 5 years old and 36% were 6 years old. In addition, it was determined that the family type in which the preschool children in the study group lived was mostly nuclear family 246 children, extended family 11 children and single parent 10 children. In the families of the majority of the preschool children participating in the study, 94.4%

did not have individuals with special needs and 5.6% had individuals with special needs in their families. It was determined that 31% (83) of the children in the study group had never received preschool education before and 69% (184) had received preschool education before. In addition, it was determined that 31.1% (83) of the children in the study had preschool education experience for the first time, 28.8% (77) had 1 year of education, 19.5% (52) had 2 years of education and 20.6% (55) had 3 years of education.

Data Collection Tools

"Child Demographic Information Form", "Preschool Acceptance Scale", "Prosocial Behavior Scale for Children with Special Needs" and "Sociometry Scale" were used to collect the data of the study.

Child demographic information form

The child demographic information form was prepared by the researcher to obtain information about the child's age, gender, family type, whether or not the child had received preschool education before and how many years of preschool education the child had received.

Acceptance Scale For Kindergarten (ASK)

The scale developed by Favazza and Odom in 1996 for the acceptance of children between the ages of five and eight who do not show typical development,

need special education, or have characteristics that are not similar to the majority was adapted into Turkish by Ahmetoğlu, Shpendi, and Acar (2017) through a validity and reliability study. The preschool acceptance scale consists of 18 questions and 6 different colored pages where the answers are marked. Children were asked to mark each question by choosing one of the answers as 'Yes, I would like to/would like to' (smiley face symbol), 'No, I would not like to/would not' (sad face symbol) or 'I don't know/maybe' (confused face symbol). The Cronbach Alpha coefficient value of the Turkish version of the scale was 0.87. As the score obtained from the ASK increases, children's social acceptance also increases.

Prosocial behavior scale for children with special needs

It is a scale developed by Burak, Acar, and Özdemir (2023) to determine the prosocial behaviors of typically developing children towards children with special needs. The scale of prosocial behavior towards children with special needs consists of a total of five different scenarios, the first being orthopedic disability, the second being visual impairment, the third being hearing impairment, the fourth being speech and language impairment, and the fifth being orthopedic disability. The scenarios in the scale are read to the child in order and the

child is asked to answer the questions. If the child gives an answer that includes prosocial behavior in the first question, the child receives four points. However, if the child cannot answer the first question, the second (3 points), third (2 points) and fourth (1 point) questions containing clues are passed. The internal consistency coefficient (cronbach alpha) of the scale was calculated as .837. In this study, the internal consistency coefficient of the Prosocial Behavior Scale for Children with Special Needs was recalculated and found to be .88. According to this situation, it can be interpreted that the measurement tool is highly reliable for this study group.

Illustrated sociometry scale

The pictorial sociometry scale was developed by Asher, Singleton, Tinsley and Hymel in 1979. The scale, which was developed to determine children's favorite and least favorite classmates, was adapted to Turkish by Gülay (2008) through a validity and reliability study. The child is shown a list of photos of his/her classmates. The child is asked to show 'three of his/her favorite friends to play with' and 'three of his/her least favorite friends to play with'. The child whose name is mentioned the most by his/her friends is determined as the favorite or the least favorite child.

Data Collection Process

In order to conduct the study, the approval of Trakya University Social Sciences and Humanities Research Ethics Committee was first obtained, and then the necessary permissions were obtained from Ankara Governorship and Ankara Provincial Directorate of National Education. Permission was obtained from both parents (written) and children (verbal) of the schools volunteering to participate in the study. Measurement tools were administered individually to the child who wanted to participate in the study in a special room within the school. All study data were transferred to excel, the data were cleaned and analyzed after final checks.

Data Analysis

IBM SPSS-Statistics 27 was used to analyze the data. In the study, skewness/ kurtosis values were examined to determine whether the groups were normally distributed, and as a result of the

analysis, it was determined that the skewness/ kurtosis values was in the range of -1.96 to + 1.96, which is accepted as a normal distribution. for this reason, parametric analyzes were preferred in the study. Therefore, it was determined that the variables in the scale showed normal distribution and it was found that it was appropriate to use parametric techniques in the analysis of the data. Independent t-test analysis was used to determine whether there was a significant difference between the binary variables. In addition, since it is thought that pre-school attendance may also affect this situation, this variable was also analyzed and included in the research findings.

Findings

In this section, the data obtained to determine the relationship between preschool children's prosocial behavior towards children with special needs and peer acceptance are presented in tables.

Table 1. Pearson correlation coefficient values of children

Prosocial Behavior	Sociometry	Sociometry	Preschool	Age
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As seen in Table 1, it was determined that there was a low level positive relationship between the Prosocial Behavior Scale scores of the children included in the study and the Preschool Acceptance Scale scores ($r=.277$; $p<.01$) and Positive Sociometry scores ($r=.264$; $p<.01$). However, it was found that there was a low level negative correlation between children's scores on the ÖGÇK Prosocial Behavior Scale and Negative Sociometry ($r=-.173$ $p<.01$). It was also found that there was a low level negative relationship between Positive Sociometry scores and Negative Sociometry ($r=-.207$ $p<.01$) scores. In other words, it was determined that preschool children with high scores in negative sociometry had lower prosocial behavior scores and preschool acceptance scores.

In addition, there was no relationship between the age of preschool children and their prosocial behavior and social acceptance towards the child with special needs.

It was determined that there was no significant correlation between the age of preschool children and the SCSC Prosocial Behavior Scale ($r=.022$; $p>.05$), Positive Sociometry ($r=.003$; $p>.05$), Negative Sociometry ($r=.077$; $p>.05$) and Positive Preschool Acceptance Scale ($r=-.035$; $p>.05$). In other words, it can be said that there is no relationship between the age of preschool children and their prosocial behavior and peer acceptance towards the child with special needs.

Table 2. Simple linear regression analysis results on children's scores

	B.	sd	β	t	p
(Fixed)	12,714	3,527		3,604	.000**
Calendar Age	-.295	.594	-.034	-.496	.620
Sociometry Negative	-.279	.125	-.159	-2.236	.027*
Sociometry Positive	.357	.117	.216	3,048	.003**
Preschool Acceptance Scale Total	.199	.050	.279	4,012	.000**

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$; $R=.404$; $R^2=.163$; Adjusted $R^2=.144$; $F_{(4-174)}=8.494$; $p=.000$

As seen in Table 2, according to the simple linear regression analysis conducted to explain the prosocial behavior, peer acceptance and positive-negative sociometry scores of normally developing

children towards children with special needs; it was found that peer acceptance and positive-negative sociometry scores significantly predicted children's prosocial behavior towards children with special

needs ($R=.404$; $R^2=.163$; Adjusted $R^2=.144$; $F_{(4-174)}=8.494$; $p=.000$). In other words, it was found that positive/negative sociometry and peer acceptance explained

16% of preschool children's prosocial behavior towards the child with special needs.

Table 3. t-test results for children's scores

	Pre-school education	n	\bar{x}	sd	t	df	p	d
Prosocial Behavior Scale for Children with Special Needs	Did Not Receive	81	14.82	4,999	2,586	120,899	.011*	.385
	Took	186	16.43	3,751				
Preschool Acceptance Scale Total	Did Not Receive	49	24.18	6,431	-2.589	177	.010*	-.434
	Took	130	21.63	5,663				

* $p<.05$; ** $p<.05$

According to Table 3, it was found that there was a statistically significant difference in the scores of the Prosocial Behavior Scale for Children with Special Needs (PBSCBS) ($t(120.899)=2.586$; $d=.385$; $p<.05$) and Preschool Acceptance Scale (PSAS) ($t(177)=2.203$; $d=-2.589$; $p<.05$) according to the preschool status of the preschool children participating in the study. As a result, it was determined that preschool children's prosocial behavior and social acceptance towards children with special needs changed depending on whether they received preschool education or not, but the effect size of this change was low. It was found that preschool children who had previously received preschool education had higher Prosocial Behavior Scale scores than children who had not received preschool education. In line with this result, it can be said that preschool education supports children's prosocial behavior positively. In another

finding of the study, it was expected that children who had received preschool education before would have higher peer acceptance than children who had not received preschool education, but it was found that preschool children who had received preschool education before scored lower on the Preschool Acceptance Scale than children who had not received preschool education.

Result and Discussion

This study aimed to examine the relationship between preschool children's prosocial behavior towards children with special needs and peer acceptance. In this part of the study, the findings obtained as a result of the analysis of the scales and demographic variables were discussed and interpreted with the studies in the literature.

When the prosocial behavior of preschool children towards children with

special needs and their peer acceptance and sociometric grades were evaluated, it was concluded that children's prosocial behavior was related to their peer acceptance and sociometric grades. In this case, it is possible to say that children who are less loved and accepted by their peers exhibit less prosocial behavior. Prosocial behavior and peer acceptance are two intertwined areas that develop by supporting each other. It is known that children who are accepted by their peers are more prosocial and children who exhibit prosocial behavior are more easily accepted by their peers. As a matter of fact, Ezmeçi et al. (2020) conducted a study with 36-72-month-old children and found that children who were accepted by their peers were more helpful, cooperative, compliant with rules and able to express their feelings in games. Bıyık (2021), who conducted a study on peer relations and social skills of children aged four to six years, found that children with high social skills had more positive peer relations. As a matter of fact, it is seen that similar results are found in studies on prosocial behaviors in the relevant literature (Jambon & Malti, 2022; Scharfstein & Beidel, 2015). For example, in a study conducted by Jambon and Malti (2022) in Canada to examine the developmental relationship between peer relationship quality and prosocial behaviors of children, it was found that children who experienced quality peer relationships at

the age of four gave more prosocial responses at the age of six. They also stated that children who are loved and accepted by their peers tend to help others more when they need help. In the study conducted by Van den Bedem et al. (2019) in the Netherlands on empathy and friendship quality in children and adolescents, they concluded that positive peer relationships contribute to the development of empathic skills in the later process. Walker (2004) conducted a study with preschool children in Australia and found that children who were not liked and rejected in the group exhibited more negative behaviors. In a study conducted by Scharfstein and Beidel (2015) in the United States of America (USA), it was stated that children who had difficulty in socialization were accepted as unloved and unwanted children among their peers. As a result of the study conducted by Calvo et al. (2001) in Spain on positive social behaviors in childhood and adolescence, it was found that the empathy skills of lonely people were lower than those of social people. Kwon et al. (2022) conducted a study on social behaviors in the USA and found that children exhibit more positive social behaviors to friends with whom they share emotions. Malti et al. (2012), in a study conducted in Switzerland to examine the effect of early sympathy and social acceptance on sharing in children, found that social acceptance had a low effect on

the development of pro-social behaviors. In a study conducted by Asscheman et al. (2020) in the Netherlands on children's peer preferences and sharing skills, it was found that children who were liked by their classmates exhibited more prosocial behaviors than children who were not liked by their classmates and children exhibited more prosocial behaviors to their liked friends than to their disliked friends. Lu et al. (2023), in their study conducted in China, found that peer trust has a positive effect on positive social behaviors. Girard et al. (2017), in a study conducted in four different countries in the United Kingdom, found that language development has a positive relationship with social development and social development has a positive relationship with pro-social behavior. They also stated that the child's increased social experiences, socialization and social acceptance support the child to exhibit positive behaviors. Greener (2000), in his study on peer evaluations of positive social behaviors in the United States, emphasized that it is important that the people who will exhibit prosocial behaviors have characteristics such as respectability, compatibility, likability and popularity. In the same study, it was also found that children who were sociometrically popular in the group exhibited more pro-social behaviors. Poorthuis et al. (2012) found that children who were accepted as popular in the group exhibited more pro-social

behaviors. Fung and Chung (2023), in their study with kindergarten children in China, stated that cheerful and happy children exhibited more prosocial behaviors while playing with their peers. Marcone et al. (2021) conducted a study on positive social behaviors in Italy and found that self-confident children were more likely to initiate interactions and be accepted by their peers, and were more likely to help and share with others. Based on all these studies, it can be said that children are selective when exhibiting prosocial behaviors. The fact that children who are not liked or accepted in the group exhibit negative behaviors and that children who exhibit negative attitudes are not accepted in many studies supports the findings of this study. The fact that children exhibit more prosocial behaviors with peers they like, have close relationships with or accept can be considered as an explanation for this situation.

While the prosocial behavior of preschool children is expected to increase with increasing age, it was found that there was no increase in the prosocial behavior of children with increasing age. This may be due to the limited experience in this subject in the educational environment. In the relevant literature, there are many studies supporting that prosocial behaviors increase with increasing age (Aydin, 2021; Do et al., 2019; Gryczkowski et al., 2018; Karaman & Dincer, 2020; Marcone et al.,

2021; Pettygrove et al., 2013; Roth-Hanania et al., 2011; Spataro et al., 2020; Warneken & Tomasello, 2013; Zhao & Kushnir, 2023; Yaşar-Ekici, 2015; Zhu et al., 2023), but very few studies (Ng et al., 2011; Uysal et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2021) were found to support the findings of this study. The fact that older children have higher levels of prosocial behavior than younger children may be an indication that prosocial behavior develops more as children get older. However, there are some studies in the literature that provide an understanding of the study findings (Della Porta & Howe, 2017; Zhu et al., 2015). Katz et al. (2024), in their experimental study to understand children's pro-social behavior, found that children's intentions to exhibit prosocial behavior changed as their age increased. In this case, it can be said that children make a choice to exhibit prosocial behavior or not in some situations. Zhu et al. (2015) conducted a study to determine the effect of intergroup competition on the positive social behaviors of young children and found that prosocial behaviors increased with increasing age. However, it was found that children between the ages of two and a half and three and a half exhibited more prosocial behaviors than children between the ages of five and a half and six and a half under the condition of competition. Zhao and Kushnir (2023), in their study with children between the ages of four and

eight, found that age did not cause a difference in children's evaluation of positive behaviors, but children's reactions varied according to age. They also emphasized that the ages of six and eight are important milestones in evaluating the understanding of moral values. Hu and Feng (2022) examined the relationship between parenting style and the development of positive social behaviors of preschool children in China and found that although the seven-year-old group scored higher in the sharing dimension of prosocial behavior than the four-six age group in the sharing dimension, there was no significant difference between four and six. Based on all these studies, it can be said that growing up has a great effect on learning and exhibiting prosocial behaviors. The change in the intention to exhibit prosocial behavior may cause the child to choose or not to choose prosocial behaviors voluntarily. In addition, it would be difficult to say that age has a direct effect when the child's behaviors are not supported by purposeful teaching or experience. In addition, when the studies in which age predicts prosocial behaviors are examined, it can be interpreted as a result of the fact that the age range in the studies was limited to 4-6 years in this study, while the age range in the studies was very wide.

It was expected that children who had previously received preschool education would have a significant

difference in prosocial behavior and peer acceptance compared to children who had not received preschool education. As a result of the study, it was determined that there was a significant difference in the prosocial behavior of preschool children, but there was no significant difference in the peer acceptance of children. In line with this result, it can be said that preschool education supports children's prosocial behavior positively. It can be said that findings similar to this research result are also found in the literature (Erbay, 2008; Erten, 2012; Gültekin-Akduman et al., 2015; Salikutluk, 2017; Tuğrul, 1992). In the study conducted by Tuğrul (1992), it was determined that children who received preschool education exhibited more positive social behaviors than children who did not receive preschool education and that children who received preschool education for a longer period of time had fewer mental adjustment problems in primary school. Günindi (2008) found that six-year-old children who had just started preschool education had lower social adjustment than their peers who had received education for a longer period of time. Erbay (2008), who conducted a study with primary school first grade students, found that children who received preschool education had higher social skills than children who did not receive preschool education. In the study conducted by Erten (2012), it was found that there was a

relationship between school adaptation of 5-6 year old children and their peer relations and social position. Therefore, it can be said that children who are accustomed and adapted to school can establish better relationships with their peers. Similarly, in the study conducted by Gültekin-Akduman et al. (2015), it was found that the problem behaviors of children who had just started preschool education were higher than those of children with two years or more of education, while the social skills of children with two years or more of education were higher than those of children who had just started preschool education. Salikutluk (2017), who examined the prosocial behaviors of children and their parents, found that the prosocial behaviors of children who attended preschool education for two years or more were higher than those who received less than two years of education. Karaman and Dinçer (2020), who conducted a study to examine the prosocial behaviors of preschool children, found that the prosocial behavior scores of children who received preschool education for more than six months were higher than those of children who had just started preschool education. Studies with results that do not overlap with this finding of the study and the related literature examples have been found in the literature, albeit rarely (Bağcı, 2015; Çubukcu, 2019; Saygılı, 2021). As a matter of fact, the fact that

there are studies in the literature that preschool education both predicts and does not predict prosocial behaviors suggests that it is related to the quality and content of education. In addition, in the development of children's prosocial behaviors, education (Özbal & Gönen, 2023), education program supported with stories and movies (Aisha & Kaloeti, 2020 ; Favazza, et al., 2016; Shpendi & Ahmetoğlu, 2017), teachers' reactions to emotional situations (Denham et al, 2012), peer communication (Ezmeci et al., 2020; Hay et al., 2004; Kostelnik et al., 2005; Rubin et al., 2015) and previously learned prosocial behaviors (Baillargeon et al., 2011). The reason for the finding of the study that preschool education does not tire prosocial behaviors but does not tire peer acceptance is that peer acceptance is a more subjective and emotional situation. Because there is no need to establish a special bond with people to exhibit prosocial behavior. However, acceptance of individuals by their peers is a more subjective situation. The benefit of preschool education in terms of general needs can be seen in a short time. However, since peer acceptance is related to attitudes, it is thought to affect peer selection over time. In addition, the child's communication skills and prosocial behaviors play an important role in acceptance by peers. It is known that children with special needs are more

difficult to be accepted by their peers than typically developing children (Bakkaloğlu et al., 2019; Ferreira et al., 2017; Karadağ et al., 2014). In the study conducted by Futamura and Shima (2023), it was found that children who did not exhibit positive social behavior had problems in social acceptance by their peers. In addition, in the study conducted by Akin and Sani-Bozkurt (2021), even children who said rejecting words towards their friends with special needs expressed that they felt sorry for the situation of their peers with special needs and that they would help them when they needed. Çulhaoğlu-İmrak and Sığirtmaç (2014) reported that children responded with more sensitive attitudes towards their friends with special needs and their needs. In the light of all this information, it is thought that exhibiting prosocial behavior towards the child with special needs is learned more easily than accepting the child with special needs for children with normal development.

Since providing an inclusive educational environment in schools will enable children to acquire positive social skills in the natural flow of life, children can be informed about "special needs". Preschool teachers can support children's prosocial behavior skills before social acceptance problems arise in the classroom environment.

Limitations

The use of one-to-one scales with children in this study can be considered a limitation. For this reason, different techniques such as observing children in the classroom environment or the teacher's evaluation of the child can be used in new

studies. Since the scale scenarios used in the study were structured, children's responses to the types of disabilities not included in the scale may be different. For this reason, it may be useful to conduct assessments for other types of disabilities.

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AN ONTOLOGICAL EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL REVIEW OF AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH STUDY

Esin Çiftçi Birincibubar

Chapter 4

An Ontological Epistemological and Methodological Review of an Educational Research Study

ESİN ÇİFTÇİ BİRİNCİBUBAR¹

An Ontological Epistemological and Methodological Review of an Educational Research Study

Educational research is a systematic activity aimed at producing new knowledge or refining current knowledge that is relevant to improve educational effectiveness (Stenhouse, 1984). As it is understood from the definition, there are some ways of reaching improvement in the educational effectiveness. According to Creswell (2002), a researcher may improve, practice, add something new to knowledge, expand the current knowledge, replicate it or add voices of individuals to that knowledge with the help of the research.

While doing so, at the very beginning, two things that should be clear are the ontological and epistemological stance of the researcher.

Ontology is the study of being (Crotty, 1998). It tries to answer the question of what constitutes the reality. On the other hand, epistemology is the nature of knowledge (Cohen et al., 2007). It deals with the questions what it means to know something and the ways to create, acquire and communicate the knowledge. So in short, while ontology is about how we approach reality, epistemology is about how we handle the knowledge to reach that reality. These two form the philosophical underpinnings of the research. The ontological and epistemological views of the researcher are reflected on the methodology of the research. The strategy or plan of action that underpins the selection and application of specific methods is referred to as methodology (Crotty, 1998). Methodology presents the best way for the researcher to find out anything they believe they can know (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In other words, it, like a holistic picture of the way of the research, discloses the ontological and

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epistemological perspectives of the research and determines appropriate methods to use (Grix, 2002). Selecting which methodology to follow depends on the paradigm directing the research.

The philosophy or in other words the paradigm chosen to be followed contains all information about both the researcher and the research as well. Four fundamental components of a paradigm are ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods (Scotland, 2012). By looking at the chosen paradigm, first of all, the ontological and epistemological stance becomes clear and then the reflections of this stance are noticed in all dimensions of the research including the methodology. At this point, it will be useful to explain what a paradigm is. It is an umbrella term and can be defined as a fundamental worldview or belief system that guides the ontological, epistemological and methodological perspective of the researcher (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Denzin and Lincoln (2005) used the metaphor of a net for a paradigm which caught the researcher's epistemological, ontological and methodological assumptions.

Research Paradigms

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), four philosophical approaches to research are positivism, post-positivism, critical theory and constructivism /

interpretivism. Each paradigm has its own ontological, epistemological and methodological positions in itself. Each paradigm will be explained in detail from their ontological, epistemological and methodological perspectives according to the tables which summarize the basic characteristics of four philosophies in Guba and Lincoln (1994) (see Appendix A and Appendix B).

Positivism

The positivist paradigm, also known as the scientific paradigm, aims to explain, predict and control the things under investigation. The ontological underpinning of positivism is naïve realism which depends on real but apprehendable reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This type of realism claims that objects exist independently of the observer (Cohen et al., 2007). Scotland (2012) mentioned that positivist researchers would claim that senses had no mediating effect on the reality.

Epistemologically, a positivist research adopts objectivism. That is, the findings of positivist research are accepted as certainly true. There is hypothesis testing and hypotheses that have been proved become truths or laws (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). According to positivists, the researcher tries to uncover causal relationships and experiment by controlling conditions, as in pre-test / post-test designs (Irene, 2014).

When the methodological stance of positivism is examined, the researchers mainly use quantitative methods which enable them to reach verified hypotheses. The philosophy of positivism requires a very well-structured methodology, as well as measurable observations and statistical analysis (Remenyi et al., 2005, as cited in Al-Ababneh, 2020). Guba and Lincoln (1994) pointed out that experimental/manipulative research was preferred in positivist studies.

Post-positivism

While the ontological assumption of positivism depends on naïve realism, post-positivism approaches reality from a critical realist perspective. Thus, the researcher focuses on real reality again but he can approach it imperfectly and probabilistically (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The falsification principle asserts that scientific theories can never be proven as certainly true (Ernest, 1994). Therefore, reality is only predictable in terms of probability.

Post-positivists have a modified dualist / objectivist perspective epistemologically. They reach probable facts or laws only if the hypotheses are not falsified (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The methodological assumption of post-positivism is modified experimental / manipulative. Since post-positivists claim that reality is predictable only in terms of probability, qualitative research methods

can also be used besides quantitative ones which are mainly preferred as in positivism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Critical theory

The critical paradigm is based on critical theory and the concept that research should be performed for "emancipation of individuals and groups in an egalitarian society" (Cohen et al, 2007, p. 26). In addition to emancipation, there are also research purposes such as critique, transformation and restitution (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Critical theorists have historical realism as their ontological stance. The reality is regarded as virtual since it is shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and gender values (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Social behaviour is the result of "particular illegitimate, dominatory and repressive factors, illegitimate in the sense that they do not operate in general interest- one person's or group's freedom and power is bought at the price of another's freedom and power" (Cohen et al, 2007, p. 26).

Epistemologically, the knowledge is subjective. That is, it is both socially constructed and shaped by the power relations within the society (Scotland, 2012). Guba and Lincoln (1994) maintain that the nature of knowledge in critical theory is value mediated and cultural and

historical conceptions are taken into consideration.

The methodological perspective of critical theory is dialogic / dialectical. Questioning values and assumptions, revealing hegemony and injustice, challenging traditional social institutions, and engaging in social action are all part of critical methodology (Crotty, 1998). In the same vein, critical discourse analysis, critical ethnography, action research and ideology critique are among the methodologies of critical theory (Scotland, 2012). Qualitative research methods such as open-ended interviews, focus groups, open-ended questionnaires, open-ended observations and journals are generally utilized to reach the aforementioned aims of the critical inquiry.

Constructivism / Interpretivism

The main aim of the constructivist paradigm is to understand the subjective meaning of the individual when it is constructed and re-constructed several times (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). For the constructivists, there are other ways to learn about the world such as our perceptions and interpretations of it rather than direct observation (Bryman, 2008; Crotty, 1998, as cited in Al-Saadi, 2014). So, interpreting the phenomena is the ultimate goal rather than making generalizations by reaching certain or

probable truths as is the case in positivism and post-positivism.

The ontological stance of constructivism is relativism. In other words, reality is dependent on the individual who makes meaning out of it. Thus, it can be multiple, can change from person to person and can be socially and experientially constructed differently by different people (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Mack (2010) points out that the interpretive paradigm is also called as constructivism because of individual's constructing meaning out of reality. Besides reality's being multiple, it is also socially constructed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Morgan, 2007).

Transactional / subjectivist perspective is the epistemological underpinning of constructivism. There is an assumption that the researcher would develop knowledge socially as a result of his or her real-life experiences in the natural settings studied (Punch, 2005). The findings are interpreted based on the researcher's reasoning and cognitive processing of data which is influenced by the interaction of the researcher with the participants (Kivunya & Kuyini, 2017). According to Scotland (2012), knowledge is culturally generated and historically contextual. The difference between critical theory and the interpretive paradigm is that constructivism accepts ideologies rather than questioning them (Scotland, 2012).

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), a constructivist researcher adopts hermeneutic methodology. That is, the researcher shares his own interpretation in the analysis process with the participants to confirm whether his interpretations are correct or not (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Interpretive methods provide insight and understanding of the behaviour, explain acts from the standpoint of the participants, and do not oppress them (Scotland, 2012). Some of the proposed methods to be used in constructivist research are group interviews, focus groups (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) as well as case studies, phenomenology, hermeneutics and ethnography (Creswell, 2009; Scotland, 2012), all of which are regarded under qualitative research.

Method

This study is qualitative in nature. It has the aim of analysing a research study in descriptive terms. Thus, there is no concern for making generalizations from the findings. The research article which was under scrutiny was *Student teachers' identity construction: A socially-constructed narrative in a second language teacher education program* written by Villegas, Varona and Sanchez (2020) and published in a journal called 'Teaching and Teacher Education'.

The article was analysed in-depth by taking into consideration the tables as criteria in Guba and Lincoln (1994), in which they summarized basic characteristics of four research paradigms from their ontological, epistemological and methodological perspectives (see Table 1 and Table 2).

Findings

The study under scrutiny was aimed "to understand and detail how a group of student teachers in an undergraduate English teacher education program, at a public university in Colombia, construct their teacher identity" (Villegas et al., 2020). When the aim of the study is analysed in-depth, it is clear that the study takes a constructivist perspective because the purpose of constructivist research is to understand the subjective meaning which is constructed and re-constructed many times (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The participants of the analysed study were six student teachers in an ELT department. Written and oral narratives and teaching practicum journals of the participants were used as data collection tools. Analysing the qualitative data, the researchers found that "teacher identity construction involves an ongoing process and its development is constantly shifting as a result of teaching *experiences* and social interactions (Villegas et al., 2020).

Ontological Review of the Study

The analysed study has a relativist perspective ontologically. The reality is socially and experientially based in relativist view. Thus, in the study, each participant socially co-constructs their teacher identity with regard to their experiences as student-teachers. Their approach to the reality is relative since it is multiple and dependent on the individual who will construct it according to the meaning they make out of their own world. The researchers also acknowledged that teacher identity was not something fixed nor imposed on the individuals but negotiated through experience and the meaning-making potential of that experience. They also mentioned that participants in the study placed their individuality in a variety of qualities and values, and they socially constructed a teacher identity through engaging with others in the English teacher education program. In this statement, we see the elements of constructivist ontology like multiple and socially constructed realities.

Epistemological Review of the Study

Epistemological assumption of the study is transactional and subjectivist. In the study, they referenced to Vygotsky by indicating the importance of social interaction in forming teacher identity since

others help us to become ourselves (Vygotsky, 1987). As it is stated in the study, the interaction of participants with members of the teacher community brought about knowledge building and occasionally a good image of teaching profession (Villegas, et al., 2020). The epistemological stance of the study is made clear with the statement "the findings revealed that the construction of teacher identity is a dynamic process that entails a permanent construction of who we are and who we might become as a result of our involvement with social actors (Wenger, 1998)" (as cited in Villegas et al., 2020). Thus, the findings of the study are not value-mediated but created or in other words, constructed by the participants since all knowledge in constructivist approach comes from individual experiences. Wilson (1996) also indicates that knowledge is a matter of construction not transmission in constructivist philosophy.

Methodological Review of the Study

The researchers adopted a qualitative narrative inquiry with a socio-cultural perspective. They gave the definition of narrative research as "a way of understanding experience involving collaboration between researcher and participants, over time, in a place or series of places, and in social interaction with

milieus" (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; as cited in Villegas et al., 2020). Constructivist perspective is easily noticed in this definition as well. The aim of the methodology is not to control, explain or transform but to understand the experience. Also, they claimed that narrative inquiry enabled them "to understand the participants' experiences, their interpretation of themselves and the events that shed light on who they were as teachers" (Villegas et al., 2020).

The methodology of the reviewed article is hermeneutic as well. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), the information gathered should be fed back to the participants in order to confirm the correctness of interpretations done by the researcher. In the same vein, the researchers remarked that they wanted the participants to check their interpretations regarding participants' narrated experiences. This has also added credibility to the study since "the trustworthiness of the narrative research lies in the confirmation by the participants of their reported stories of experiences" (Webster & Mertova, 2007, p.99; as cited in Villegas, 2020).

Conclusion

Educational research provides several different ways to approach any phenomena. The paradigm chosen by the researcher determines the ontological, epistemological and methodological

perspectives of the research. These perspectives vary according to each research paradigm.

In this paper, a study in the field of teaching and teacher education was reviewed from its ontological, epistemological and methodological perspectives. As an example of constructivist research, it was revealed that the study under scrutiny had a relativist ontology, transactional and subjectivist epistemology and hermeneutical methodology. While reviewing the journal article, the paradigm positions in Guba and Lincoln (1994) were used as the analysis criteria. Doing an in-depth analysis of the study enabled to realize the characteristics of the paradigm underlying the research and thus, to comprehend it better.

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Appendix A: Table taken from Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.109)

TABLE 6.1 *Basic beliefs (metaphysics) of alternative inquiry paradigms*

Item	Positivism	Postpositivism	Critical Theory et al.	Constructivism
Ontology	naive realism—"real" reality but apprehendable	critical realism—"real" reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable	historical realism—virtual reality shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic and gender values; crystallized over time	relativism—local and specific constructed realities
Epistemology	dualist/objectivist; findings true	modified dualist/objectivist; critical tradition/community; findings probably true	transactional/subjunctivist; value-mediated findings	transactional/subjunctivist; created findings
Methodology	experimental/manipulative; verification of hypotheses; chiefly qualitative methods	modified experimental/manipulative; critical multiplism; falsification of hypotheses; may include qualitative methods	dialogic/dialectical	hermeneutical/dialectical

Appendix B: Table taken from Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.112)

TABLE 6.2 *Paradigm positions on selected practical issues*

Issue	Positivism	Postpositivism	Critical Theory et al.	Constructivism
Inquiry aim	explanation: prediction and control		critique and transformation; restitution and emancipation	understanding; reconstruction
Nature of knowledge	verified hypotheses established as facts or laws	nonfalsified hypotheses that are probable facts or laws	structural/historical insights	individual reconstructions coalescing around consensus
Knowledge accumulation	accretion—"building clocks" adding to "edifice of knowledge"; generalizations and cause-effect linkages		historical revisionism; generalization by similarity	more informed and sophisticated reconstructions; vicarious experience
Goodness or quality criteria	conventional benchmarks of "rigor": internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity		historical situatedness; erosion of ignorance action stimulus	trustworthiness and authenticity and misapprehensions
Values	excluded – influence denied		included - formative	
Ethics	extrinsic; tilt toward deception		intrinsic; moral tilt toward revelation	intrinsic; process tilt toward revelation; special problems
Voice	"disinterested scientist" as informer of decision makers, policy makers, and change agents		"transformative intellectual" as advocate and activist	"passionate participant" as facilitator of multi-voice reconstruction
Training	technical and quantitative; substantive theories	technical; quantitative and qualitative; substantive theories	resocialization; qualitative and quantitative; history; values of altruism and empowerment	
Accommodation	commensurable		incommensurable	
Hegemony	in control of publication, funding, promotion, and tenure		seeking recognition and input	

**A STUDY ON SELF PERCEPTION AND LEARNING
STYLES IN ENGLISH LESSONS OF SECOND
GRADERS**

Ezgi Balkan , Muhlise oşgun Ögeyik

Chapter 5

A Study on Self-Efficacy Perception and Learning Styles in English Lessons of Second Graders

EZGI BALKAN¹ , MUHLISE COŞGUN
ÖGEYİK²

1. Introduction

Learning a new language is a complex process that requires both cognitive and psychological readiness. Considering foreign language learning situations, the problems encountered reveal that language is structurally more complex (Demirel,1999). That's why, there are important factors that cannot be ignored in the learning stages. Researchers have tried to emphasize these factors as affective factors that are integrated with individual differences. The factors that influence the language learning process have been investigated over the years relating to learners' success and achievement. In initial stage, attitudes and motivation were the focal point of language learning but then self-beliefs that depend

on learning, motivation and attribution of success have a notable attention (Mercer &Williams,2014). Among the factors, self-efficacy has a great attention in terms of being a good predictor of performance and competence (Schunk,1985; Tilfarlioglu & Cinkara, 2009). Bandura (1986) asserts that one of the main concepts that affect behavior is self-efficacy (Senemoglu,2011). According to Horwitz (1999), bearing in mind that language learning beliefs may differ in terms of individual differences. In other words, it is needed to distinguish individual traits since foreign language learning process has a direct relationship with the learners' characteristics (Aydın& Zengin,2008). Hence, not only in the classroom settings but also outside of the school are based on language exposure to discover potential of diversity. There are numerous studies that are based on self-efficacy perception in foreign language learning (Baker,2008; Çubukçu,2008; Duman,2007; Nikitina,2006; Sakui & Gaises,1999; Yang,1999) but most of them have been conducted with higher levels. Additionally, there are studies that conducted on self-efficacy of teachers or pre-service teachers (Külekçi,2011; Taşer,2015) so researchers have intended to investigate "the younger, the better"

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idea to emphasize the distinctive features of the young learners since young learners' language learning process is still mystery for the desired success (Acat & Demiral, 2002; Arslan & Akbarov, 2010). Therefore, it is needed to explore "self-efficacy" term with young learners to interpret the gathered information over the years.

In akin to "self-efficacy" term, one of the main elements of language learning process may be related to learning styles as learning is essentially an individual act. Oxford (2001) defines learning styles as the common approaches that are required to use in the learning process such as visual, auditory, kinesthetic, global etc. Similarly, Pajares (1997) states self-efficacy may be it is required to identify factors supporting effective learning in educational contexts. Considering the first-year experience in language learning as second graders, it is beneficial to elaborate on the learning styles of learners at the starting point since it may give insight into underlying factors behind the learning process.

2. Self-Efficacy and Learning Styles in Language Learning

Learning consists of challenging processes that have lots of affective variables in different contexts. Ulusoy (2003) noted that these factors are divided into four categories based on learner, method, learning material and learning

seen as an indicator of individual preferences to decide on the behavior acts. Regarding the success or failure in the language skills, learning styles may enable learners to take the responsibility for its own sake. According to Graham (2007) and Wong (2005), it can be stated that there is a relationship between self-efficacy, language learning strategy and learning styles. Besides, Hasırcı (2006) expressed that the studies related to language learning progress might be integrated with individual traits and learning styles. To illustrate this, it is necessary to discover the relationship between self-efficacy and learning styles among young learners since

environment. In light of Ulusoy's statement, it may be possible to say that these factors can depend on external and internal situations. External forces can arrange the methods, learning material and learning environment; however, the concept of learner depends on the "self". Apparently, individual traits have a remarkable role in language learning. Once Büyükduman (2006) acknowledged that self-efficacy in language learning is still scarce, individual differences in language learning demand a more comprehensive investigation of self-efficacy.

There are invaluable studies that are based on self-efficacy in English language learning. Nevertheless, foreign

language self-efficacy scales are available for higher graders in the literature rather than young learners in the elementary schools (Dagyar & Şahin, 2020; Memduhoğlu & Çelik, 2015). When the relevant literature is reviewed, researchers tend to investigate self-efficacy within three courses as science, mathematics, and physical education depending on the academic success in the world (Schunk, 1989; Pajares & Miller, 1997; Pajares et al., 2000) and (Azar, 2010; İpek & Acuner, 2011; Küçük, Altun & Paliç, 2013) in Turkey. Since self-efficacy is multidimensional, self-efficacy studies in different contexts cannot be generalized in terms of results as students' self-efficacy level may differ. With regard to self-efficacy in English language learning, there are some sort of studies that are conducted to interpret the effective language settings in Türkiye (Açikel, 2011; Başaran & Cabaroğlu, 2014; Büyükduman, 2006; Çubukçu, 2008; Demir, 2018; Duman, 2007; Göker, 2005; Kanadlı & Bağçeci, 2015; Karafil, 2015; Memduhoğlu & Çelik, 2015; Ocak & Baysal, 2016; Tarcanlıoğlu, 2005; Tuncer & Doğan, 2016; Turanlı, 2007; Yaman et al., 2013; Yanar, 2008). The bulk of the research has emphasized self-efficacy and attribution of success in making contributions to the field.

Furthermore, young learners should be encouraged in the process of learning since they are not independent enough to

take responsibility for their own learning at the beginning. To highlight this self-concept, "learning style" terminology that has been used first by Dunn (1960) may be a good catalyst of effective learning for this reason (Coffield, 2005). It is important to highlight that people need learning styles like the blood group (Boydak, 2015). In the same view of Babadoğan (2000), learning style resembled like a signature of a person. As Kuzgun and Deryakulu (2004) asserted that learning style becomes dominant in 1960's. After the 1980's, the studies have been involved in both qualitative and quantitative results in different contexts.

The source of learning style is based on individual differences the same as self-efficacy. At that point, it is important to note the meaning "style and strategy" as a comparable dynamic. Learning style is considered as the general approach whereas strategy is related to specific needs in the different context of language tasks (Cohen, 2003; Oxford, 2003). Consequently, learning styles have a predominant role in learning process giving the fact that learners may exhibit different learning styles to provide prediction of students' performance (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Oxford, 1992; Wallace & Oxford, 1992; Zhang, 2003). Güven (2004) claimed that a learning style can change a person's life. Also, Güven and Kürüm (2006) explained that people can diagnose their own strengths and weaknesses by

means of learning schema. What is more, it is acknowledged that individuals' learning styles may be shaped in accordance with age, gender, cultural aspects, and success beliefs (Özer,1998).

There are several classifications that are based on learning styles but all of them have emphasis on individual differences. Xu (2011) indicated that there are more than seventy learning style models that have been identified by researchers. Reif (1987) reported that learning styles are probably classified as external-environmental figures, emotional items, physical elements, sociological and psychological aspects. Despite different models of learning styles by Gregorc, Jung, McCarthy, Butler, Grasha, Dunn, Reinert, Felder and Silverman, Kolb still draws attention to a worldwide approach in learning styles (Alkan&Özgen,2011). Kolb's theory

involves four levels of learning as: concrete experiences, reflective observations, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (CE, RO, AC, &AE) and two learning dimensions as concrete/abstract or active/reflective (Willcoxson& Prosser, 1996). Izadi and Mohammadzadeh (2007) confirmed that these categories reflect divergent, convergent, accommodate, and assimilate learning styles. The types of learning styles had been derived from experiential learning theory. Divergent style requires sensitive people who prefer learning with observation instead of doing. Convergent ones are good at technical work and they desire to explore new ideas and interpretations. Accommodating style consists of learning from intuition rather than logical assumptions whereas assimilating is based on logic and love abstract notions.

Figure 1. Kolb's learning styles (Kolb,2006)

Kolb (1981) asserted that there is no unique learning style of an individual permanently. Kolb investigated 800 people who are in different job identities and the findings indicated that engineers tended to have diverging styles whereas mathematics and chemistry involved assimilating styles. Also, Aşkar and Akkoyunlu's study (1993) represented the most common learning style as assimilating.

The relationship between gender and learning style has been investigated by Kolb (1976). On the subject of the meta-analysis, it has been claimed that females focused on concrete behavior whereas males tended to emphasize abstract notion (Willcoxson & Prosser, 1996). On the contrary, Kruzich and colleagues (1986) demonstrated that there is no meaningful difference in preferred learning styles.

On the basis of the literature review, there has been an increasingly interest in research studies that reflect a meaningful difference in learning styles on behalf of age, gender, attitude, motivation on doing homework (Deniz, 2013; Elçi, 2008; Gencel, 2006; Güven, 2004; Kayacık, 2013; Koçak, 2007; Köse, 2010; Şentürk, 2010;). On the other hand, there are still some researchers who contributed that there was no meaningful difference between learning styles and other variables as they have expected (Aktaş, 2007; Biçer, 2010; Bilgin & Durmuş, 2003; Yavuz, 2014; Yenice &

Saraçoğlu, 2009). There were some researchers that have investigated self-efficacy in a multitude of variables. For instance, it had provided that there was a significant correlation between English learning self-efficacy, learning strategies, motivation, and autonomous learners (Zhang, et al., 2019). From another perspective, it was possible to see no association between learning styles and proficiency levels of English as second language students (Sunderland, 1992). Also, Oxford (1995) asserted that proficiency levels in speaking and reading in English had no correlation. Additionally, Baltaoğlu and Güven (2019) had found that self-efficacy level of pre-service teachers and learning styles/strategies has low relationship in their study. On the condition of that the educational program has renewed as learner-centered, it may lead researchers to explore those terms specifically from the teachers' perceptions (Baltaoğlu & Güven, 2019; Deniz, 2013; Gencel & Köse, 2011; Gökdağ & Güven, 2017; Köse & Uzun, 2018; Yaşar-Ekici, 2018).

3. Method

This study was carried out by using the descriptive research model in a correlational model. It was conducted in a survey model. According to Nunan (1992), surveys are a snapshot of conditions, attitudes, and events at a single point in

time and quantitative research refers to reaching definite and generalizable results by using numerical data (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2018). The data collected using quantitative research methods through questionnaires.

3.1. Research Design

This present study aimed to investigate self-efficacy and learning styles of second graders incorporating scales that are the ways of getting data with numerical means (Fraenkel et al., 2012). This study can be categorized as quantitative research that indicates statistical, numerical explanation via numbers (Creswell, 2014). Two scales (English self-efficacy scale and Kolb Learning Inventory Style) were conducted to find the correlation between self-efficacy and learning style in this descriptive study. The study focused on dealing with the following research questions:

- 1.** Is there any significant relationship between self-efficacy and learning styles?
- 2.** Is there any significant difference between gender in language learning in terms of self-efficacy?

- 3.** Is there any significant difference between gender in language learning in terms of learning styles?

3.2. Context and Participants

This current study includes a descriptive and quantitative study with the participation of young learners (n:27) in İstanbul, Avcılar. The population of the research consisted of second grade students that can be reached through easily accessible sampling method that belongs to use convenience sampling (Galloway, 2005). The population of the study consisted of two classes and they were at the age of 7 and 8. Pertaining to the foreign language learning at public schools in Türkiye starts in the second grade, the students had almost one year experience of learning English with the same teacher. The level of students was approximately A1 (beginner level) on basis of the Common European Framework Reference for Languages (CEFR).

3.3. Data Collection Instrument

In this study three data collection tools were used: demographic form, English Self-efficacy Scale by Bümen (2012) and Kolb Learning Styles Scale (2007). For this study, the ethical approval from İstanbul Ministry of National education and consent forms from parents were followed by the researcher. The data were gathered from second graders during 2022-2023 academic education year.

3.3.1. Demographic form: Questions in the form were designed to enable the researcher to get to know students and it has been created by the researcher using relevant literature review.

3.3.2. English self-efficacy scale: This scale was used to determine learners' self-efficacy about English language. It consists of four different subcategories as reading, writing, speaking, listening (Bümen & Yanar, 2012). This scale is based on five-point Likert type with 34 items. Cronbach alpha is found 0.97. Before the application of the interview, written permission via e-

mail was obtained from Bümen (2012) to use.

3.3.3. KOLB learning style inventory:

It was constructed and developed by Kolb (2005) and it has been widely used in assessing learning styles. Gencel (2007) made some adaptations about the language use. It consists of 12 questions with four statements. Participants were expected to rank order these statements in accordance with four options (1: the least you agree, 4: the most you agree). The lowest score is 12 whereas the highest degree is 48.

Figure 2. Kolb learning style inventory III grid (Fowler et al., 2000)

Kolb's learning cycle consists of four different styles (Concrete Experience, Reflective Observation, Abstract Conceptualization, Active Experimentation). Combined scores were gathered as (AC-CE) and (AE-RO). Abstract Conceptualization (AC) - Concrete Experience (CE) and Active Experience (AE) - Reflective Observation (RO) and the

scores may vary between -36 and +36. Also, Aşkar and Akkoyunlu (1993) have explored Kolb learning inventory style's reliability and they found Cronbach Alpha between 0.73 and 0.83. Divergence learner style is based on concrete experience and reflective observation (Smith&Kolb,1996). On the other hand, abstract conceptualization and reflective

observation depends on assimilating learner style (Kolb,2005). To ensure converging learning style, it is required to have abstract conceptualization and active experimentation (Kolb, 1984).

3.4. Data collection process

The data were collected from the participants during 2022-2023 academic year. Relevant permissions were obtained from the school administration and İstanbul Ministry of National Education since the study took place in a public school. Before implementation of the study, participants received information about the process and sent the parental approval letters to home. All participants were second graders from the same school. The questionnaire was provided in the native language since participants were not capable of understanding and reading English structures without guidance. Three data collection instruments were conducted and participants were expected to fill in the forms in 40 minutes (one lesson hour). During the process of data collection, it was required to be careful about timing, sincerity, and organization. First, students were expected to fill in "the English Self-Efficacy Scale" then they continued to fill in "Kolb Learning Inventory Style."

3.5. Data Analysis

The participants' scores from "Kolb Learning Inventory Style" and "English Self-Efficacy Scale" were calculated. Later,

combined scores were interpreted to identify the type of learning style in accordance with the responses from the questionnaire of participants. The data analysis was carried out by means of IBM SPSS Statistics 20. The frequency and percentage analysis were performed. The independent t test, one way ANOVA and correlation analysis were used to analyze the data. Demographic information form was also checked for variables.

3.6. Ethical Concern

3.6.1. Ethics committee permission

With regard to "Higher Education Institutions and Scientific Research and Publications Ethics", the rules were followed by researcher. None of the actions mentioned under the title of "Actions against Scientific Research and Publication Ethics" that is the second part of the information, took place.

Since students were under the age of 18, consent forms were obtained from their parents. Giving that the research took place in a public school in İstanbul, ethical approval was requested from İstanbul Ministry of National Education for 2022-2023 academic year.

Ethics committee name: İstanbul Ministry of National Education

Ethical evaluation date: 16.05.2023

Ethical evaluation document number: E-59090411

4. Findings

Table 1. Distribution of Learning Style of Participants

Categories of Learning styles	Female Participants		Male Participants		Total Participants	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Diverger	5	41,7	6	40,0	11	40.7
Assimilator	2	16,7	3	20,0	5	18.5
Converger	2	16,7	3	20,0	5	18.5
Accommodator	3	25,0	3	20,0	6	22.2
Total	12	100	15	100	27	100

Table 1 demonstrates the distribution of the learning style of female and male participants. It was found that the majority of participants have divergent learning styles (%40.7) whereas assimilator and converge type have the same percentages (18,5). In general, female and male participants have divergent style. Divergent has included five female participants, assimilator and convergent have two females and accommodator depends on three females whereas six males have divergent learner style and assimilator, convergent and accommodator have the same number (n:3) for male participants.

Table 2. Self-efficacy Perceptions in terms of Skills

Self-efficacy Scale	Min- Max.	Mean± S.d
Listening	10-44	24.44 ± 9.45
Writing	13-41	27.07 ± 7.68
Reading	9-37	20.18 ± 7.44
Speaking	6-29	13.14 ± 5.49

In Table 2, it was search for self-efficacy perceptions about four language learning skills. Also, it was found that the self-efficacy perceptions have related to the issues of educational background of parents and self-efficacy perceptions in four skills regarding demographic form. It can be referred from the findings that self-efficacy perceptions about only listening skills had a meaningful difference ($p=0,027$).

Table 3. Correlation between Self-efficacy Perceptions and Learning Styles

Learning Types	Self-efficacy Perceptions	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
	r	,161	,290	,055	,179
	p	,424	,143	,787	,373
	n	27	27	27	27

In Table 3, it has been demonstrated that there is no correlation between self-efficacy and learning styles in this research.

Table 4. Self-efficacy Perceptions and Gender

Self-efficacy perceptions	t	p
listening	1,405	, 172
reading	, 816	, 422
writing	, 402	, 691
speaking	, 223	, 825

Based on the values between self-efficacy and gender, it was found that there is no significant difference between self-

efficacy and gender among 27 EFL learners in this study.

Table 5. Learning Styles and Gender

	p	t	Mean dif.	St. Error Diff.
Learning styles	, 918	,104	, 05000	, 48156

In accordance with Table 5, there are no significant differences between learning styles and gender. In other words, learning styles of participation did not affect in terms of gender for 27 participants in that study.

5. Discussion and Implications

It has been debated whether the significance of learner styles and self-efficacy perception become apparent or not in the context of young learners. To illustrate this, two data collection instruments assisted the way of comprehending the associations including learning styles, self-efficacy and gender perspective. Based on the findings of the study, it can be stated that the majority of participants have (Type 1) "diverging" learning style (n:11). In comparison to gender, it can be reported that divergent

learning type stands as the first for both females and males. Also, "assimilating" and "converging" learning style have the same percentage. When reviewing literature on learning styles, Çelenk and Lehimler (2019) underlined that the most dominant learning style was "converging" whereas the least preferred was "accommodating" in French lessons of high school students. Likewise, Madran (2020) highlighted that the least dominant learning style had found as "accommodating" in the study. Comparing to studies related to learning styles of university students, it was acknowledged that the bulk of studies provided "diverging" learning model in general (Genç,2015; Köroğlu,2015; Taşdemir,2017). From another perspective it was observed that the least preferred learning style has been noted

“accommodating” (Can,2011; Dikmen et al.,2018; Genç& Kocaarslan, 2013; Kurtuluş,2019). According to Kolb, divergent learners were associated with arts and human beings more (Kolb,1999).

As mentioned earlier, results have shown that there was no significant relationship between self-efficacy perceptions and learning styles of second graders in this study. Another point of view was that the self-efficacy perception toward English lessons correlated with just listening skill so it can be interpreted that young learners need to listen the target language as much as possible since it may boost their “self” thoughts. In parallel with this result, it can be proved that listening depends on individual efforts and self-drive more.

In terms of gender, it has been found that there was no significant difference between learning styles of second graders and gender. Also, there were many studies that supported this argument (Arslan& Babadoğan,2005; Can, 2011; Celenk & Karakış,2007; Demir, 2008; Eskıcı, 2011; Gencel;2006; Genç& Kocaarslan,2013; Gokdag, 2004; Hasırcı, 2006; İlhan, 2002; Kaya, 2007; Kılıç& Karadeniz, 2004; Koç, 2007; Köroğlu,2015; Mutlu, 2008; Orr et al.,1999; Ozdemir &Kesten, 2012; Ozturk, 2007; Uzuntiryakı, Bilgin & Geban, 2004; Yanardoner, 2010). On the contrary, some researchers had

found that there was a significant difference between learning styles and gender (Biçer, 2010; Cakır &Akbaş,2012; Caycı& Ünal,2007; Günaydın,2011; Güven &Kurum, 2008; Kose,2010; Madran,2020; Mutlu,2006; Perry &Ball,2004; Sara,2010).

Regarding gender on self-efficacy, it encapsulated some assumptions that there were significant differences in the source of self-efficacy (Anderson& Betz,2001; Lent, Lopez et al.,1991; Usher & Pajares, 2006). On the other hand, some studies pointed out self-efficacy perceptions were not associated with gender (Chen,2020; Melik,2014; Rezaei,2012; Tenaw,2013; Yaman, Cansungu &Altuncekcic,2004). Therefore, gender may not be a predictor between self-efficacy and learning styles in small class size.

Of course, since self-efficacy beliefs and learning styles are based on individual perceptions it is inevitable to have contradictory views as indicated by many researchers but determining learning styles may contribute to the field to consider the affective factors for teacher and students’ favor. Also, self-efficacy beliefs may enhance the logical assumptions about process orientation in language development. Since the learning process demands a great deal of attention, individual differences may be focal point to emphasize variations in the process so it is invaluable contribution to the field by

stimulating the information. Correspondingly, the learner style may provide information about what to teach, how to teach and when to teach especially with young learners. Self-efficacy perception may lead researchers to strengthen their studies for not only limited to the classroom but also the social environment of language reflection. To put in a nutshell, it is granted that taking individual differences into consideration to evaluate language learning process may foster guidance, autonomy and self.

6. Limitations of the Study

The current study is constrained by its small sample size as it consists of only 27 participants. Therefore, more extensive sample size may be required to generalize the results. It has been noticed that the quantity of participants may have a delicate effect on the results. Second, the data were gathered from only second graders and the

study is limited to only a specific age and proficiency level.

6.1. Recommendations for Upcoming Research

Aforementioned above, it may be beneficial for researchers to investigate self-efficacy and learning styles of learners at different ages and also skills for further studies. For upcoming studies, longitudinal studies may have beneficial for grasping better development of young learners.

For instructors and students, it may be leading to say that language learning arises from other skills and individuals should be integrated into their own learning process. In particular, providing a sense of learning foreign language with the framework of 'self' may be beneficial for young learners to observe potential input and outcomes over the years.

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ENTROPY-BASED PREDICTION OF L2 WRITING QUALITY: A COMPARISON OF BLOCK SIZES

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Chapter 6

Entropy-based Prediction of L2 Writing Quality: A Comparison of Block Sizes

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Introduction

The prediction of overall L2WQ using computational means is a worthy endeavor in terms of both hypothesis testing and developing time-saving practical assessment applications. Although it is difficult to propose a full computational model that can predict L2WQ completely accurately, a number of textual constructs such as lexical and syntactic complexity, accuracy, fluency, coherence, cohesion and many more are known to predict L2WQ (see Crossley, 2020 for a thorough overview) in addition to cognitive and individual variables such as working memory capacity, strategy use or L1 writing proficiency. In that respect, testing different combinations of the known

variables or new ones is still an important venture in L2 writing research for the construction of prediction models that can capture L2WQ to the best extent possible.

Since all the aforementioned variables constitute a large list, making building accurate predictive models difficult datawise, overall measures which capture a relatively larger amount of data in a fewer number of variables may arguably be more beneficial as such measures may make it simpler to build predictive models while retaining the necessary information. Drawing from information theory, one such measure is entropy, which can be defined as the amount of unpredictability produced by comparing a selected unit (i.e. a letter, word or chunk) in a text against other units of the same nature (Shannon, 1948). As such, entropy is a quantitative measure of the average information per selected unit in a text, allowing for making inferences regarding information density and textual complexity (Hansen et al., 2023).

In general, an entropy computation involves comparing the selected unit of analysis against its likes, producing how much

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information each selected unit contributes to the text and how information grows throughout the text (Takahira et al., 2016). A single-unit (i.e. letter or word) computation of entropy, therefore, can be obtained based on the frequency distribution of the unit. It is computed as the sum of the probability of each word occurring in the text multiplied by the negative base-2 logarithm of that probability. Therefore, higher entropy values indicate higher unpredictability across the units compared, implying higher complexity and information content in the text investigated (Shannon, 1948).

As mentioned above, unpredictability or information content can be measured as entropy for single-unit entities, in which case it is called Shannon Entropy (Shannon, 1948; Yu et al., 2020). While Shannon Entropy can An entropy-based approach to text allows language researchers to conduct modeling and evaluation studies based on the information content that a text has (Nanda & Chowdhury, 2019). In the relevant literature, entropy-based computations have been used to predict language proficiency (Flanagan & Hirokawa, 2015) and its development (Sun & Wang, 2021) as well as more specific measurements such as social diversity in language use (Gullifer & Titone, 2019), lexical richness (Shi & Lei, 2020),

be useful for some statistical calculations in the analysis of learner language, it might deem limited for some others as language production also utilizes multi-word units such as formulaic expressions, phrases or bundles, which researchers are also interested in to draw conclusions from data. For this purpose, block entropy should be used. Block entropy can extend Shannon Entropy to word blocks of distinct lengths, while considering mutual information and statistical dependencies among those blocks (Kim et al., 2013). As such, it allows for computing information content through entropy based on language units which are longer than a word.

conjugation classes (Lee, 2022), narrative flexibility (Snow et al., 2015), complexity of grammatical metaphor (Zhou, 2023) and uncertainty of verb distribution (Wu & Wang, 2020), so it can be said that entropy computations have a wide range of use in L2 studies. However, the studies utilizing entropy computations are naturally limited to their research purposes, indicating a gap with regards to which block size in entropy computations could predict L2WQ the most accurately.

While different block sizes in entropy computations are, indeed, necessary for different research purposes, shorter or longer block sizes may result in different prediction accuracy levels when the dependent variable is L2WQ. Considering that the level of uncertainty or unpredictability would be different when entropy is based on letters, words or n-grams, it seems to be necessary to reveal if shorter or longer block sizes are more suitable for the prediction of L2WQ. Identifying the optimal block size may inform L2 writing research as for receiving the optimal results in L2WQ predictions. Therefore, this study aims to test different entropy values based on varying n-grams and compare how well they predict human ratings of L2WQ. The study answers the following research question:

RQ. How do the entropies of characters and varying n-grams compare in terms of accuracy in the prediction of L2WQ?

Methodology

All variables in the study were approached quantitatively since prediction models were to be built.

Corpus

The edited written essays compiled by the International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English (Ishikawa, 2018) was used as the data source of the study. Consisting of independent essays as a response to two different prompts, the corpus had 639 essays written by Asian university students, scored reliably between 0 and 100 using the widely-cited ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, 1981). Ranging from 182 to 403 words, the mean text length in the corpus was 231.22 (SD = 31.56). The essays in the corpus are considered to be comparable since they were written by similar groups of language learners under the same conditions such as essay prompt or time (approximately 60 minutes).

Data Extraction

To obtain different entropy values based on characters, unigrams, bigrams and trigrams were computed for each essay using a set of codes written in Python 3.8.3. Then, Shannon Entropy formula was applied to each group of data separately to compute entropy values for each essay. The following formula was used to compute the entropy values where H is the sum of the negative product of each unit's probability of occurrence and the base 2 logarithm

(allowing for output in bits) of that probability:

$$H(X) = - \sum [P(x_i) * \log_2(P(x_i))]$$

L2WQ was used as presented in the information sheet of the corpus. Since text length would be a potentially-confounding factor in the prediction models, it was also computed for each essay to be used in the models.

Data Analysis

Upon preliminary analyses, it was seen that text length was not normally distributed (skewness = 1.329, kurtosis = 1.776). For this reason, one outlier (essay 614) was removed from the data set, producing the following skewness and kurtosis values (see Table 1) and indicating normal distribution for all variables:

Table 1. *Skewness and Kurtosis Values*

Variable	Skewness	SE	Kurtosis	SE
H _{character}	-0.188	0.097	0.123	0.193
H _{unigram}	-0.279	0.097	0.914	0.193
H _{bigram}	0.043	0.097	0.864	0.193
H _{trigram}	0.423	0.097	0.797	0.193
Score	-0.437	0.097	0.781	0.193
Text Length	1.174	0.097	0.706	0.193

The final data set of 638 essays was analyzed by means of linear regression analyses. In each model, an entropy value and text length were used as predictors and essay score was used as the dependent variable. 85% of the data (n = 542) was used for training (i.e. building the model) and 15% (n = 96) was used for testing the model, assigning data points randomly to training or test group. The accuracy of each model was tested using root mean squared error (RMSE).

When used as a predictor in the same model with text length, entropy values based on characters, unigrams and bigrams did not result in any collinearity issues as indicated by variance inflation factors (VIF) between 1.001 and 2.612. However, entropy values based on trigrams were seen to have multicollinearity with text length with a VIF value above 5. For that reason, the variance explained by text length in scores ($F_{(1, 540)} =$

19.553, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .035$, intercept = 42.895, $SE_{\text{intercept}} = 4.653$, $B = 0.089$, $SE_B = 0.020$, $p < .001$) was deduced from the total variance by computing the residuals of the model, producing the variance in essay scores unexplained by text length. Then, trigram entropy was used to predict the residuals of that model to see if it could

explain the aforementioned unexplained variance in essay scores.

Findings

The first model was built using character entropy as a predictor of L2WQ. As shown in Table 2, the model was significant, explaining 4.7% of the variance ($F_{(2, 539)} = 13.36$, $p < .001$).

Table 2. *Regression Model 1 - Character Entropy*

Model	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>R</i> ²
Regression	5379.929	2	2689.964	13.362	< .001	.047
Residual	108504.500	539	201.307			
Total	113884.400	541				

The coefficient analysis results for the first model are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. *Coefficient Analysis for Model 1*

Model	<i>B_{Unstandardized}</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B_{Standardized}</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	-86.040	49.106		-1.752	.080
$H_{\text{character}}$	30.149	11.431	0.111	2.637	.009
Text Length	0.091	0.020	0.190	4.511	< .001

The coefficients of both character entropy and text length were found to be significantly contributing to the first model ($p < .01$). Therefore, the following prediction equation was built using the results:

$$\text{Score} = -86.040 + H_{\text{character}} * 30.149 + \text{Text Length} * 0.091$$

The RMSE computed on the test data using the prediction equation for the first model was found to be 12.112.

The second regression model used unigram entropy as a predictor of L2WQ. The results are presented in Table 4. The model was

statistically significant, explaining 9.1% of the variance ($F_{(2, 539)} = 28.88, p < .001$).

Table 4. *Regression Model 2 - Unigram Entropy*

Model	SS	df	MS	F	p	R ²
Regression	10326.850	2	5163.423	26.875	< .001	.091
Residual	103557.600	539	192.129			
Total	113884.400	541				

The results of the coefficient analysis for the second model are given in Table 5.

Table 5. *Coefficient Analysis for Model 2*

Model	$B_{Unstandardized}$	SE	$B_{Standardized}$	t	p
Intercept	-53.595	17.385		-3.083	.002
H _{unigram}	16.860	2.933	0.270	5.748	< .001
Text Length	0.027	0.022	0.056	1.185	.237

In the coefficients, unigram entropy was seen to be significant ($p < .001$) but text length was not ($p > .05$). The prediction equation was computed as follows:

$$\text{Score} = -53.595 + H_{unigram} * 16.860 + \text{Text Length} * 0.027$$

Based on the equation, RMSE was computed to be 11.316 on the test data.

The third regression model shown in Table 6 where bigram entropy was the predictor of L2WQ was also significant, explaining 5.8% of the variance ($F_{(2, 539)} = 16.56, p < .001$).

Table 6. *Regression Model 3 - Bigram Entropy*

Model	SS	df	MS	F	p	R ²
Regression	6593.559	2	3296.780	16.562	< .001	.058
Residual	107290.800	539	199.055			
Total	113884.400	541				

Coefficient analysis results for the third model are tabulated in Table 7.

Table 7. *Coefficient Analysis for Model 3*

Model	$B_{Unstandardized}$	SE	$B_{Standardized}$	t	p
Intercept	-55.256	27.474		-2.011	.045
H_{bigram}	15.713	4.336	0.245	3.624	< .001
Text Length	-0.003	0.032	-0.005	-0.080	.936

In the coefficient results, bigram entropy was seen to be significant ($p < .001$) while text was not, with a coefficient close to 0 ($p > .05$). The prediction equation was built as follows:

$$\text{Score} = -55.256 + H_{bigram} * 15.713 + \text{Text Length} * -0.003$$

For this equation, the RMSE value was computed on the test data as 11.823.

The fourth model where trigram entropy was the predictor of L2WQ and the effect of text length was partialled out is presented in Table 8. The model was not statistically significant ($F_{(2, 539)} = 0.671, p > .05$); therefore, no coefficient analysis was run for this model.

Table 8. *Regression Model 4 - Trigram Entropy*

Model	SS	df	MS	F	p	R^2
Regression	136.379	1	136.379	0.671	.413	.042
Residual	109768.400	540	203.275			
Total	109904.700	541				

Discussion

The study aimed to test the predictive power of character, unigram, bigram and trigram-based entropy values on L2WQ. The results showed that character, unigram and bigram-

based entropy values could significantly predict L2WQ while trigram-based entropy was not a significant predictor of the

construct. Based on the variances explained and prediction errors, the significant predictors can be ranked as follows:

1. Unigram entropy ($R^2 = 0.091$, $RMSE = 11.316$)
2. Bigram entropy ($R^2 = 0.058$, $RMSE = 11.823$)
3. Character entropy ($R^2 = 0.047$, $RMSE = 12.112$)

In that regard, unigram entropy was found to be the strongest predictor of L2WQ among the variables tested. This shows that the growth of information content throughout the text, which entropy measures (Takahira et al., 2016), is better captured by individual words in comparison to characters, bigrams or trigrams. This may be due to unigrams carrying semantic information which might be more directly related to L2WQ in comparison to the other entropy variables tested in this study. Based on individual words, unigram entropy may be capturing the breadth of learners' vocabulary, informing L2WQ in terms of the size and extent of the vocabulary used in the text (Laufer & Nation, 2013). Also, the amount of information produced by individual words may indicate lexical richness (Shi & Lei, 2020), which is a predictor of L2WQ (Crossley, 2020). Therefore, unigrams seem

to have more linguistic relevance within the context of L2WQ due to their semantic load and being indicative of diversity in vocabulary use.

Bigram entropy could also predict L2WQ more successfully than character entropy and less successfully than unigram entropy. Unlike characters, bigrams seem to be capturing some semantic content and possibly collocations, which provide at least some information about the context and are indicators of L2WQ established in the relevant literature (Monteiro et al., 2023; Prentice & Lundell, 2021). Having a larger number of possible meaningful combinations compared to characters, bigrams can be expected to have less noise and redundancy, contributing more to the prediction of L2WQ. On the other hand, the amount of meaning and context captured by bigrams are limited to word pairs, which may not be reflecting diversity in vocabulary use as accurately as unigrams since word pairs also include function words, potentially reducing the information density extracted from them and making the model less accurate than that with unigram entropy as a predictor of L2WQ.

Although character-based entropy significantly predicted L2WQ in this study, it

was the variable which explained the smallest variance in the data and had the highest prediction error. It appears that the amount of information contributed to the text through character sequences is also related to L2WQ capturing complexity at a granular level since they provide the most basic information content. However, being a very limited set of components (26 in English) they provide a smaller amount of information compared to unigrams. Also considering that certain character sequences are naturally more frequent than others in a given language and those sequences are predictable (Chen et al., 2021). Moreover, they do not provide any semantic information or context, carrying no meaning when treated individually. Therefore, characters might be contributing redundant information or noise to the text investigated, resulting in poorer performance in the prediction of L2WQ.

Trigram-based entropy was not a significant predictor of L2WQ after partialling out the effect of text length in the model. A plausible explanation for the non-significance of trigram-based entropy could be the infrequent occurrence of trigrams in comparison to characters, unigrams or bigrams. Being more sparse in nature, trigrams may make predictive models more

prone to variability, making it more difficult to identify stable patterns for prediction problems. Moreover, the information present in a trigram may already be present in a bigram or unigram, reducing the performance of the model by introducing redundancy.

Conclusion

The study tested how character, unigram, bigram and trigram entropy performed in the prediction of L2WQ and found that unigram entropy was the strongest predictor while character and bigram entropy were also significant predictors. Trigram entropy was seen to produce a non-significant prediction model. While character and bigram entropy seem to be contributing to understanding L2WQ to some extent, unigram entropy outperforms them, possibly since it is able to capture lexical richness and diversity better. As such, L2WQ seems to be captured better by word-level individual units compared to longer-range co-occurrences.

The findings confirm the need to focus on vocabulary breadth on behalf of teachers and learners. Although there is a large body of literature indicating the importance of co-occurrences within the context of L2WQ, the growth of information through individual words seem to capture L2WQ better than

pairs or three-word sequences. Therefore, focusing on increasing the size of the productive vocabulary should not be overlooked in the teaching of writing.

Analysis on the level of individual words seems to be a better option to understand L2WQ compared to pairs or three-word sequences, too. Word choice, word frequency and lexical variety appear to play a more important role than the others in the prediction of L2WQ necessitating the use of word-level variables in prediction models. However, it should be noted that unigram entropy could explain only 9.1% of the variance in L2WQ together with text length, effectively meaning that 90.9% of the variance is explained by other factors and thus, unigram entropy should be used as a complementary variable to others such as grammatical complexity or accuracy in prediction models.

There seems to be many more tests to be conducted due to the limitations of this

study. All the computations in this study were made without removing stopwords in the learner essays. So similar tests should be conducted comparing the performance of entropy-based predictors of L2WQ with and without stopwords. As such, bigrams or trigrams in the study do not fully correspond to collocations although some of them are expected to do so. In that regard, collocation-based entropy values can also be tested to see how much information each collocation contributes to a text and if that amount can predict L2WQ. Another limitation of the bigrams and trigrams in this study is that they are merely two or three-word sequences in learner texts, in the extraction of which the grammatical features or dependencies are not taken into account. Therefore, entropy values based on parts of speech or structural dependencies are expected to produce different results in the prediction of L2WQ.

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MORPHEME ACQUISITION IN EFL CONTEXT: A META-ANALYSIS OF L1 INFLUENCE AND NATURAL ORDER

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Chapter 7

Morpheme Acquisition In Efl Context: A Meta-Analysis Of L1 Influence And Natural Order

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Background of the Study

Theories of second language acquisition date back to the 1940s and since then research in SLA has grown at a remarkable rate. When Ellis looks back to the last 50+ years of SLA history and tries to identify the phases of it, he labels the 60s and 70s as the first phase: “making a start” (2020, p.190) referring to a period when the order and sequence of acquisition was the main area of interest. Even though there have been many other areas of interests featured in the SLA history so far, the starting point of it, acquisition order in second language (L2), has remained the principal attraction among all with its

complex, multifaceted and dynamic nature. Therefore, no matter how many times the order of acquisition in L2 has been studied, the period in which the study is conducted, participants, settings, and methodology of the studies have always brought different perspectives to the phenomena. Particularly morpheme acquisition order studies have spearheaded the investigation of different aspects of L2 acquisition.

Within the cognitive approach against behaviorist influence, the preliminary morpheme order study was carried out by Brown (1973) propounding that as children acquire their first language (L1) in a more or less established and predictable order, L2 learners acquire the grammar of an L2 in a similar way. The findings of another early study by de Villiers and de Villiers (1973) reached a similar conclusion, but they distinctly drew attention to the existence of possible determinants influencing the acquisition order of morphemes. Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974) investigated morpheme acquisition order from the standpoint of children learning English as second language and proposed the existence of universal acquisition order of grammatical

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morphemes. Bailey, Madden, and Krashen (1974) investigated adults enrolled in university preparation programs or continuing ESL programs and reported that their results were in line with those of Dulay and Burt (1974). Some other following studies in L2 also supported the idea that there is a universal acquisition order (Krashen et al., 1978; Larsen-Freeman, 1975; Rosansky, 1976). Moreover, Krashen (1977) set forth the Natural Order Hypothesis (NOH) in which L2 learners acquire morphemes in a universal, more or less fixed and predictable order.

Gass and Selinker (2001), on the other hand, criticized the idea of natural order by stating that the morphemes of L2 cannot be acquired without individual and external variances and L1 influence. Some other scholars also argued the importance of L1 influence on morpheme acquisition (Luk & Shirai, 2009; Murakami, 2013). Other researchers proposed that, in addition to the function of the L1, there are other determinants that may influence the morpheme acquisition in L2 (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001; Kwon, 2005).

More recently, a myriad of research has provided enough evidence for the assertion that while there is a universal pattern in L2 English learners' acquisition of grammatical morphemes, there exists some

evidence for L1 influence and some underlying factors affecting the process. Although there are numerous studies concerning the effects of age, L1 background, and a variety of learning settings (Perkins & Larsen-Freeman, 1975; Pica, 1983) on morpheme acquisition order, most of the related systematic reviews and meta-analysis were carried out through the 2000s (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001; Kwon, 2005; Luk & Shirai, 2009). Therefore, this paper aims to revisit the major morpheme order studies in English as L2 from 2010 to 2020, considering mainly L1 influence. It addresses studies from various L1 contexts which aim to investigate minimum 6 morphemes in English as L2 and their accordance with the most comprehensive and one of the most preliminary studies by Krashen (1977) regarding the existence of the natural order in morpheme acquisition. Within this purpose, in the study, seven articles published in indexed journals were examined. To classify the articles, there are categories as participants from different L1 contexts, the year of the publications, minimum six grammatical morphemes under investigation, and measures that rely on TLU (Target-Like Use).

Literature Review

Language acquisition theories were given a start within the behavioristic approach in the early 1950s. Skinner, one of the earliest and the most prominent behaviorists, accounted for language acquisition by combining environmental factors and psychological works of the time in his paper "Verbal Behavior" in 1957. The main assumption for acquiring a language was mostly viewed as a habit formation process by behaviorists. According to behaviorists, there were significant differences in acquiring L1 and L2. While L1 acquisition was assumed easier because it was a set of new habits, L2 acquisition, on the other hand, was regarded more difficult because of the interference of habits formed in the process of L1 acquisition. Later on, the concept of *contrastive analysis* suggested that differences between pairs or small sets of L1 and L2 identify learners' error in

language learning (Gast, 2013; Saville-Troike, 2006).

However, Chomsky (1959) started a cognitive revolution against Skinner's views in language acquisition and proposed *Universal Grammar*: a concept of innate, biological categories in grammar that help children's language development and adults' overall language processing. In Krashen's (1977) theory of language acquisition, this concept has been expanded to account for SLA. According to Krashen (1977), within the NOH, there exists a predictable order in the acquisition of grammatical structures (see Figure 1). Namely, it was asserted that certain grammatical morphemes are acquired before others in L1 English, and it is possible to follow a similar order in SLA. Thereafter, studies concerning the order of English grammatical morphemes, which started in early 1970s, became an area of interest.

Figure 1. *Proposed order for grammatical morphemes in English L2 acquisition* (Krashen, 1977, p.13)

Morpheme order studies were mostly influenced by Brown (1973) who carried out a longitudinal study with three American children learning English as L1. The participants were 18-month-old Eve, 27-month-old Sarah and Adam. In the study, children's spontaneous speech was tape-recorded and noted through interaction.

Brown (1973) used the *Mean Length of Utterance* (MLU) to assess the children's language development because newly learned morphemes were supposed to lengthen their sentences. He also developed a way of measuring morpheme acquisition: *Obligatory Occasion Analysis*. The presence or absence of morpheme use by children was counted in grammatical contexts in which

Their process was monitored, and their morpheme acquisition order was traced. When observed, it was revealed that they acquired the set of morphemes not simultaneously but within the given order (see Table 1).

Table 1. *Order of morpheme acquisition*
(Brown, 1973, p. 274)

Morphemes

1. Present progressive –*ing*
- 2-3. *in, on*
4. Plural –*s*
5. Past irregular
6. Possessive '*s*
7. Uncontractible copula
8. Articles *a, the*
9. Past regular –*ed*
10. Third person regular
11. Third person irregular
12. Uncontractible auxiliary
13. Contractible copula
14. Contractible auxiliary

they were obligatory to be supplied. As stated by Brown (1973), to be regarded as being acquired by the learners, of all obligatory contexts a grammatical morpheme is necessarily supplied in 90 percent. Originally introduced by Brown (1973), *Suppliance of Obligatory Context*, hereafter SOC (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001; Pica 1983) was applied next by de

Villiers and de Villiers (1973) and then by Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974) in L2 context.

Following Brown's (1973) groundwork, Dulay and Burt (1973) conducted a study on the acquisition of eight grammatical morphemes: plural -s, progressive -ing, copula is, articles, auxiliary is, irregular past, 3rd person singular, and the possessive by 151 L1 Spanish ESL children, between the ages of 5 and 8. The *Bilingual Syntax Measure* (BSM) method was used to trace children's oral production. It consisted of simple syntactic constructs, seven cartoon images, and 33 questions that elicited children's natural speech. They also specified the *Group Score Method* for the functor in each obligatory context as; no functor supplied: = 0, misformed functor supplied: = 0.5, and correct functor supplied: = 1.0. Furthermore, they worked on *Group Means Method*, and *Syntax Acquisition Index* to analyze the total number of obligatory occasions. According to the results, it was reported that "there seems to be a common order of acquisition for certain structures in L2" (Dulay & Burt, 1973, p. 256). Similarly, in their further studies, Dulay and Burt (1974) asserted that "regardless of first language background, children reconstruct English syntax in similar ways" (p.37). To this end, the acquisition order suggested by Brown (1973) for L1, and L2 by

Dulay and Burt (1973) and Krashen (1977) is consistent even though their foci for the number of the morphemes differed.

Changing the participants from children to adults, Bailey et al. (1974) investigated whether ESL learners followed a common order in morpheme acquisition as children. It was found out that there was a similar but not exactly the same order as those of Dulay and Burt's (1974). However, Larsen-Freeman (1975) asserted that these studies focused solely on the product of the BSM. In her study with adult L2 learners, she used the concept of occasions of obligatory context, with five tasks in the form of tests. According to the results "there is some consistency in morpheme ranking across tasks, but the morpheme orderings are by no means the same on all tasks" (Larsen-Freeman, 1975; p. 417). Furthermore, Rosansky (1976) criticized that morpheme studies were limited in the aspects of their methodologies since case studies had constraints in the number of participants despite providing naturalistic data and the data gathered in cross-sectional studies had constraints because they were elicitation-based and reflected only a specific part of an entire continuum.

Pica (1983), on the other hand, added another criticism to morpheme order studies regarding scoring methods. SOC was

criticized because learners might correctly use a specific morpheme in obligatory contexts but incorrectly overuse it in not specifically obligatory contexts (Andersen, 1977; Hatch, 1978). Therefore, apart from

$$\text{TLU score} = \frac{\text{number of correct suppliance in obligatory contexts}}{\text{number of obligatory contexts} + \text{number suppliance in nonobligatory contexts}}$$

Figure 2. *Formula for Target-Like Use Analysis of Morphemes* (Pica, 1983, p.71)

However, after the 1990s, the number of morpheme order studies started to decline, instead the scholars analyzed and reviewed the previous related studies. Goldschneider and DeKeyser (2001) conducted the first meta-analysis regarding multiple determinants in L2 morpheme order studies between 1973-1996. They identified these determinants as perceptual salience, semantic complexity, morpho-phonological regularity, syntactic category and frequency in the input. After they performed multiple regression analysis, their results indicated that "a very large portion of the total variance in acquisition order is explained by the combination of the five determinants" (Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001, p.1). Similarly, Kwon (2005) revisited numerous L2 morpheme studies and suggested that three putative determinants including semantic complexity, input frequency, and L1 transfer determine the perceived differences of morpheme acquisition.

using SOC in her study, Pica calculated TLU using the formula below (see Figure 2), which is based on Lightbown, Spada, and Wallace (1980) and Stauble (1981):

After all, morpheme order studies after the 2000s dealt with not just the NOH but also other variables such as the role of L1, identification of determinants, and environmental settings. One of the most important variables to be mentioned was undoubtedly the influence of L1. Regarding the influence of L1 background in morpheme order studies, Gass and Selinker (2001) stated that there exists some evidence related to the role of the L1 in these studies. Although L1 influence was neglected in earlier studies, the recent ones focused more on diverse L1 backgrounds and their transfer into acquisition of English grammatical morphemes. Izumi and Isahara (2004) suggested that L1 influence and transfer is one of the most important variables that determine morpheme acquisition. In another review, Luk and Shirai (2009) investigated various L1 learners' acquisition of three grammatical morphemes in English, and they reported that the absence or presence of the

morphemes in L1 may be a predictor for the order in L2 morpheme acquisition. Accordingly, they attributed great importance to L1 influence in morpheme acquisition.

Murakami and Alexopoulou (2016) analyzed approximately 10,000 written exam scripts from Cambridge Learner Corpus. The scripts of English learners from seven different L1 backgrounds including Japanese, Korean, Spanish, Russian, Turkish, German, and French, through five proficiency levels were examined to trace the acquisition order of six English grammatical morphemes by applying TLU. The reason to apply the TLU was explained by the authors in a broader sense as "The key difference between the TLU and SOC is that the latter does not take overgeneralization errors into account" (Murakami & Alexopoulou, 2016, p.375). According to their findings, accuracy orders were more similar within the same L1 group when compared to different L1 groups, indicating that the natural order hypothesis was not supported by their results.

In parallel with Murakami and Alexopoulou (2016), in this study, with the aim of avoiding possible missing data in overgeneralization errors because of SOC, the studies employing TLU were selected to be investigated. Moreover, while Brown (1973) listed 14 morphemes to be examined

within SOC, Dulay and Burt (1973) specified 8 morphemes and applied *Group Means Method*, and *Syntax Acquisition Index*. On the other hand, Krashen (1977) suggested nine morphemes within the NOH which were then examined by not only SOC but also mostly by TLU by other scholars recently. Therefore, this study compared the rank-orders of the NOH suggested by Krashen (1977) for nine morphemes, which is mostly revisited in other meta-analysis studies, with variance among participants from different L1s in selected studies to identify if there is a universal pattern in the acquisition order of morphemes. In this regard, the research questions of the study are listed below.

1. Is there a correlation between the rank-orders of the NOH proposed by Krashen (1977) and different L1s in terms of the English grammatical morpheme?
2. Is there a correlation in the rank-orders of morphemes between the different groups with the same L1 background?
3. Is there correlation between the TLU scores of learners from different L1s?

Methodology

Research Design

Meta-analysis method was used in this study to present a systematic synthesis of the research evidence from seven articles published in ISSN (Print & Online) Journals and to combine statistically the numerical data of the selected studies and to reach a general conclusion. "Meta-analysis provides an overall effect size and a confidence interval that is not based on a single study, but on cumulative evidence, yielded from the combination of two or more studies" (Cumming, 2012, as cited in Crocetti, 2016, p.4). Therefore, meta-analysis design was preferred for the current study to search exhaustively for, identify, critically appraise, and synthesize the existing results of the relevant studies in order to answer the research questions. The PRISMA 2020 (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) statement (Page et al., 2020) was followed to ensure the transparent reporting of the current meta-analysis study.

Data Collection and Analysis

As a requirement of the exhaustive nature of meta-analysis design, explicit and transparent research protocol was set after formulating the research questions and before information retrieval in the aim of

limiting potential bias. Then, the inclusion and exclusion criteria for eligibility was determined prior to literature search, appraisal, and synthesis of findings to avoid selection bias. To this end, it was determined to use the full electronic search strategy with the search strings of (order of acquisition) OR (English grammatical morpheme order) OR "morpheme acquisition order" OR (English morpheme acquisition order) on ERIC, JSTOR, ProQuest, EbscoHost, Wiley databases and on Google Scholar intending to maximum coverage of high quality, peer-reviewed, open access journals. As for the inclusion criteria, it was decided to include (1) the combination of search terms of morpheme acquisition, morpheme order, acquisition of English grammatical morphemes, in accordance with their keywords, abstracts, and titles during the preliminary search on the selected databases, (2) papers published in journals within the last decade (2010-2020), (3) minimum 6 grammatical morphemes under investigation since multiple functors approach leads to reveal more exhaustive evidence and presents strong implications for future research (Gass & Selinker, 1994; Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001; Kwon, 2005), (4) participants from different L1s learning English as a foreign language with respect to the aim of the current study and

also because the presence or absence of the equivalent category in their L1 can cause deviations from the established universal order (Luk & Shirai, 2008), and (5) measures that rely on SOC and TLU to determine the statistical patterns and accuracy of the selected morphemes in data analysis process since these measure either suppliance or non-supliance of the target morpheme in

both in obligatory and non-obligatory contexts which is considered to yield more concrete data on morpheme acquisition order (Fen-Chuan Lu, 2001; Kwon, 2005; Murakami, 2011; Seog, 2015). Considering the research protocol, potentially relevant studies were saved, listed and screened for analysis. The flowchart for the data selection process was detailed in Figure 3.

Figure 3. *PRISMA 2020 flow diagram*

As for data analysis, the results of the included studies were synthesized to investigate whether learners showed a

universal pattern in the acquisition of English grammatical morphemes and the revealed TLU scores were statistically analyzed with

SPSS 26.0 to examine how much of the variance among participants from different L1s could be predicted by the universal pattern in the acquisition order of morphemes.

Included Studies

Mohammed and Sanosi (2018) intended to examine if Krashen's NOH (1977) worked in the same way in the Saudi EFL contexts. Besides, it was aimed to uncover whether age and learning settings have an impact on the Saudi EFL learners' acquisition of English grammatical morphemes. It was a descriptive study implemented with three groups (Group A was composed of 85 intermediate school students, and Group B was composed of 84 secondary school students. Group C included 89 college students) consisting of 258 male and female students randomly chosen from universities and public schools. A grammar elicitation task focusing on the use of 6 target morphemes was employed to obtain data. After the assessment of their performance, the TLU scores were computed for each group and found out that there was a fixed order of morpheme acquisition for each group, but the percentages were ranked for each group as follows: plural -s (A:55.7% B:68.5% C:74.6%), past -ed (A:48.2% B:60.9% C:66.1%), progressive -ing (A:39.1% B:52.6% C:59.5%), 3rd person -s

(A:33.8% B:42.2% C:48.5), possessive -s (A:23.6% B:33.5% C:37.7%), and articles (A:9.4% B:16.8% C:21.1%). Besides, there was no significant correlation ($p= 0.41$) between the order by Krashen (1977) and the order found in this research. The remarkable distinction was between articles, progressive -ing, and past -ed, which was considered because Arabic and English languages did not have the morphemes that were equivalent for the same purpose in grammar structure. Therefore, it was concluded that whereas the variables in learner settings like age and exposure to the target language were not found to have a significant impact on the order of acquisition, the role of L1 as an interference was found to be evident.

Lazono and Negrillo (2019) aimed to investigate the existence of any patterns in morpheme accuracy orders of 486 L1 Spanish secondary school students from four different proficiency levels. The written productions of the participants were uploaded on to the COREFL (Corpus of English as a Foreign Language) and 40 texts (ten for each level) including 5869 words were selected as a sample. After tagging nine target grammatical morphemes, UAM Corpus Tool (v.2.8) was run for the TLU analysis. The results demonstrated that any proficiency levels had a transparent group

variability for most morphemes. Whereas the revealed order of the beginners was found as plural -s (93.3%), possessive -s (85.8%), articles (80.6%), copula be (72.1%), auxiliary be (50%), progressive -ing (47.4%), past irregular (41.5%), past regular (39.7%), and 3rd person singular -s (11.8%), the acquisition order of the intermediates was found as auxiliary be (95.8%), plural -s (94.4%), progressive -ing (93.6%), copula be (92.5%), articles (92.1%), past regular (83.5%), past irregular (82.7%), possessive -s (57.1%), and 3rd person singular -s (0%), which indicated that proficiency level could be a determinant influencing the acquisition order.

Cheng and Lee's (2020) study focused on English morpheme acquisition order of Chinese and Korean EFL and ESL learners to evaluate if and to what extent their acquisition order of L2 English morphemes was influenced by Krashen's NOH (1977) and Dulay and Burt's (1974). The participants were purposely selected based on their L1 languages, Chinese and Korean, their position of learning English, EFL and ESL, and proficiency levels, low, medium, and high. In the end, 38 Korean and 38 Chinese EFL learners were involved in the study. The researchers scoped down the study to six morphemes. The study

employed two types of tasks one of which was a fill-in-the-blank type test for data elicitation. The participants were given three short paragraphs where the target morphemes were used in obligatory contexts and asked to fill in the blanks by using the six target morphemes. A total of 228 tokens were collected and analyzed according to the SOC method and then calculated by Pica's TLU (1983) formula. The results indicated the following order of morpheme acquisition for Chinese learners according to the accuracy rates from higher to lower: possessive - 's (96.4%), progressive-ing (96.2%), irregular past (90.8%), regular past (90.5%), plural -s (83.4%), and third singular -s (76.7%). The results from the Korean learners, on the other hand, indicated the order of regular past (86.8%), irregular past (86%), progressive -ing (80.1%), possessive - 's (77.1%), plural -s (71.2%), and third singular -s (62.1%). The orders were found to be the same despite proficiency variances in the participants. When compared, the revealed order was found to support neither Krashen's NOH (1977) nor Dulay and Burt's. Therefore, the researchers concluded that the settings, the type of participants, the methodology, the amount of instruction and input frequency play major roles in the learners' morpheme acquisition.

Ghonchepour et al. (2019) examined the accuracy order of nine target morphemes by 60 Persian upper intermediate EFL learners within the age range of 15 to 17 years old. The participants were selected in a purposive manner based on their proficiency level and self-reported aptitude level. As for data collection, they were asked to fill in the blanks based on what they saw in the pictures. Collected data consisting of 2160 morphemes was analyzed by the combination of SOC method and Pica's TLU (1983) formula. The findings indicated the following morpheme acquisition order, ranked in a decreased order: regular past tense (96.66%), auxiliary *be* (91.04%), copula *be* (89.79%), present progressive tense (85.62%), indefinite articles (84.37%), plural *-s* (82.08%), possessive *'s* (81.25%), irregular past tense (80.20%), and third person singular *-s* (74.16%). The results evidenced that the morpheme acquisition order of Persian EFL learners was not found out to be in line with the natural order. The researchers considered the role of transfer rather than universal grammar in EFL acquisition for this conclusion and suggested that the results of this study could contribute to designing instructional techniques and teaching procedures accordingly to facilitate language learning. Moreover, coursebook designers may make necessary

arrangements according to the revealed order to provide Persian EFL learners with more learning opportunities.

Lebeco (2013) also carried out a descriptive morpheme order study with the Filipino students. This study aimed to examine in which order 10 Filipino university freshman multilinguals acquired the selected eight grammar morphemes. The participant selection was made in a purposive manner on the basis of age, educational background, fluency and length of stay in the Philippines. They were to be multilingual, between 16 to 19 years old, fluent at conversational level in minimum three Philippine languages. Besides, they were to complete their elementary and high school education in the Philippines and have neither lived nor stayed in any country where English was used as the L1 for the past six months prior to the data collection. As for data collection, the students were asked to write two expository and one narrative text on the given topics. The collected data was analyzed by the combination of SOC and Pica's TLU (1983). The findings of this study revealed the following morpheme acquisition order from higher to lower percent accuracy: Auxiliary *be* (100%), Article *the* (98%), Progressive *-ing* (93.54%), Plural *-s* (88.61%), Copula *be* (86.66%), Irregular Past (82.14%), Possessive *'s* (69.69%), and Third Person

Singular Present (69.47%). As for the pedagogical implications, the researcher noted that English grammatical morphemes must be presented in the order of how that specific group of learners acquire them, namely introducing the morphemes acquired easily before presenting the ones with the higher inaccuracy percentage. Moreover, language teachers should provide extra support to help learners internalize those grammatical items that they have difficulty with.

Seog's (2015) descriptive study investigated the morpheme acquisition orders of 105 L1 Korean elementary students in the intermediate level English classes at an EFL program. The aim was to clarify and explicate the revealed disparities from Krashen's NOH (1977) to shed a light on their language acquisition process. Convenient sampling was employed during the selection of the participants and their writing samples produced during the writing sessions at the program were permitted for use. 173 writing samples, a total of 4,360 sentences with 39,402 words, were analyzed through SOC and Pica's TLU (1983) for the accurate use of the 8 target morphemes. The calculated results in a ranked order revealed the following order from higher to lower acquisition percentages: Copula be (95.50%), Plural -s (91.97%), Past Irregular

(90.55%), Past Regular -ed (88.28%), Progressive -ing (83.46%), Possessive -'s (78.16%), Auxiliary be (66.52%), and 3rd Person Singular -s (60.76%). The conclusion was that the revealed acquisition order proved the existence of deviations among the L1 Korean group of EFL learners from Krashen's (1977) proposed order of acquisition and further investigation towards generalizability should be carried out to examine influential determinants for these disparities in other contexts.

Purnamaningwulan (2020) investigated the grammatical morpheme acquisition order of 26 Indonesian senior high school students through their writing productions in the aim of finding out whether their acquisition order followed Krashen's NOH (1977). The participants were looked to be L1 Indonesian EFL learners who had studied English a compulsory subject in junior high school and have a minimum three years of English study length. As for data collection, each participant was asked to write a personal letter on a given topic. The final data consisted of 26 pieces of written texts, approximately 4,600 words. Data analysis focused on nine target grammatical and was processed through Pica's (1983) TLU method was performed to take the overuse of morphemes or their suppliance in non-obligatory contexts into consideration.

The total scores and percentages as a result of the analysis revealed the following morpheme acquisition order of the Indonesian high school EFL learners from higher to lower acquisition percentage: Copula be (70.21%), Plural -s (67.91%), Progressive -ing (66.25%), Articles (56.38%), 3rd Person Singular -s (50%), Auxiliary be (41.67%), Regular Past -ed (31.03%), Irregular Past (23.9%), and Possessive -s (0%). The results showed that the Indonesian high school EFL learners'

order of grammatical morpheme acquisition was not fully in line with Krashen's conclusion (1977). The researcher suggested further and more thorough morpheme order studies to discover other determining factors behind deviations from the established orders in the literature in the aim of gaining in-depth understanding of L2 acquisition process.

The characteristics and findings of the studies are as follows (see Table 2):

Table 2. *The characteristics and findings of the included studies*

Results

Is there a correlation between the rank-orders of the NOH proposed by Krashen (1977) and different L1s in terms of the English grammatical morpheme?

Spearman's rank-order correlation was utilized to pinpoint the similarities and

differences between the morpheme rank-order of the NOH and the morpheme rank order of different L1 groups. Orders were based on the TLU scores for each group. The result indicated that there was not a correlation between Krashen's NOH (1977) and different L1s which are L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013), L1 Korean (Seog, 2015), L1 Arabic (Mohammed & Sanosi, 2018), L1

Persian (Ghonchepour et al., 2019), L1 Spanish-Beginners (Lozano & Negrillo, 2019), L1 Chinese and L1 Korean (Cheng & Lee, 2020). On the other hand, L1 Spanish-

Intermediates ($p=.004$, $r=.850$) and L1 Indonesian (Purnamaningwulan, 2020) ($p=.013$, $r=.783$) had a positive correlation with the NOH (See Table 3).

Table 2. *Order Correlation*

Is there a correlation in the rank-orders of morphemes between the different groups with the same L1 background?

This study included the studies which were conducted with the different groups with the same L1. Firstly, Seog (2015) and Chang and Lee (2020) conducted their studies to find out the morpheme acquisition orders of English learners whose mother tongue was Korean. The order was found as regular past (1), irregular past (2)

progressive -ing (3) possessive -'s (4), plural -s (5) and third singular -s (6) by Chang and Lee (2020) whereas Seog (2020) found it as copula be (1), plural -s (2), past irregular (3), past regular -ed (4), progressive -ing (5), possessive -'s (6), auxiliary be (7), and 3rd Person Singular -s (8). Findings indicated that the morpheme orders were different from each other in these studies. Additionally, Spearman's rank-order correlation also showed that there was no correlation between the morpheme orders of

these different groups with the same L1 background.

Secondly, Mohammed and Sanosi (2018) conducted their research among three different groups with L1 Arabic. Each student group had a different education level which was derived from secondary, intermediate and college. The order was found the same for each group: (1) plural -s, (2) past -ed, (3) progressive -ing, (4) 3rd person -s, (5) possessive -s, and (6) articles. It was also stated that there was no significant correlation between the order by Krashen (1977) and the order found in this research.

Lastly, Lozano and Negrillo (2019) carried out their studies to explore the English grammatical morpheme acquisition order of Spanish learners, who were grouped as beginners and intermediates. The order for beginners was (1) plural -s, (2) possessive -s, (3) articles, (4) copula be, (5) auxiliary be, (6) progressive -ing, (7) past irregular, (8) past regular, and (9) 3rd person singular -s while it was found as (1) auxiliary be, (2) plural -s, (3) progressive -ing, (4)

copula be, (5) articles, (6) past regular, (7) past irregular, (8) possessive -s, and (9) 3rd person singular -s. Besides, it was found out using Spearman's rank-order correlation that there was no correlation between the morpheme acquisition orders of two groups.

Is there correlation between the TLU scores of learners from different L1s?

It was also aimed in the study to discover whether there was a correlation between the TLU score of learners. Spearman rank-order correlation analysis was used to see the correlations and the results have shown that there were strong correlations between as following: (1) L1 Korean (Seog, 2015) and L1 Arabic (Mohammed & Sanosi, 2018) with a *p value* of .037 and *r value* of .900, (2) L1 Persian (Ghonchepour et al., 2019) and L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013) with a *p value* of .015 and *r value* of .810, (3) L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013) and , L1 Spanish-Intermediates (Lozano & Negrillo, 2019) with a *p value* of .010 and *r value* of .833 (See Table 4).

Table 4. *TLU Correlation*

Discussion

This study set out with the aim of revealing similarities and differences in the English grammatical morpheme order between the groups with the different and same L1 background. With the help of previous research, inclusion and exclusion criteria were employed to collect the data and 7 studies were found. Publications were only included in the analysis if they included measures based on SOC (Supplied in Obligatory Contexts) and TLU. After collecting data from the studies which were presented in table 4, Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation was performed using SPSS

software (26.0) in an attempt to uncover whether there is a correlation between the NOH by Krashen (1977) and the orders and the TLU scores in the selected studies.

The first question in this study sought to test if there was a correlation between NOH and the orders of different L1 groups. In light of the analysis, it was ascertained that there was no correlation detected between NOH and L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013), L1 Korean (Seog, 2015), L1 Arabic (Mohammed & Sanosi, 2018), L1 Persian (Ghonchepour et al., 2019), L1 Spanish-Beginners (Lozano & Negrillo, 2019), L1 Chinese and L1 Korean (Cheng & Lee, 2020.

On the contrary, the NOH and L1 Spanish-Intermediates with a p-value of .004 and L1 Indonesian with a p-value of .013 were positively correlated. The second question in this research was to determine the correlation between morpheme orders of the different participants with the same L1 background. In the selected publications, there were 2 different studies that studied the morpheme order of L1 Korean learners: Seog (2015) and Chang and Lee (2020). Besides, Mohammed and Sanosi (2018) conducted their study with participants with L1 Arabic. However, there were three groups from different education levels. Lastly, Lozano and Negrillo (2019) also carried out their research with the participants with L1 Spanish. In the study, participants were groups in accordance with their proficiency levels as beginners and intermediates. Data from these studies help us analyze the correlation between the different groups with the same L1 backgrounds. The results of the correlational analysis were presented in Table xx. It is apparent from this table that beginners and intermediates groups' morpheme orders (Lozano & Negrillo, 2019) were correlated neither positively nor negatively. Similarly, morpheme acquisition orders of the participants with L1 Korean were not correlated. Nevertheless, a positive correlation was found between the

morpheme acquisition orders of learners with L1 Arabic (Mohammed & Sanosi, 2018). The last research question was to address the correlation of the TLU scores of different L1 groups. As can be seen from table xx, strong correlations were discovered between (1) L1 Korean (Seog, 2015) and L1 Arabic (Mohammed & Sanosi, 2018), (2) L1 Persian (Ghonchepour et al., 2019), and L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013), (3) L1 Filipino (Lebeco, 2013) and L1 Spanish-Intermediates (Lozano & Negrillo, 2019). The correlation between these groups was interesting because none of them had similar grammatical structures. However, their TLU scores were somehow correlated. In conclusion, for each study, it resulted that L1 influence was a factor affecting English grammatical morpheme acquisition orders and there was no clear universal order. A note of caution is due here since the NOH and L1 Spanish-Intermediates and L1 Indonesian had a positive correlation. These findings may be somewhat limited by different factors.

Goldschneider and DeKeyser's (2001) meta-analysis focused the effects of five determinants which were perceptual salience, semantic complexity, morphophonological regularity, syntactic category, and frequency, and how these determinants elucidate the variance detected in acquisition order. Their result indicated

the combination of the determinants clarifies the acquisition order variance. Luk and Shirai (2009) reviewed the morpheme order research conducted among participants with L1 Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Spanish. They traced the influence of L1 on English grammatical morpheme acquisition order. Results uncovered the orders were different from the predicted order by Krashen. They stated that the presence or absence of the equivalent category in L1 could predict the morpheme acquisition order, which indicated how L1 transfer was strong and had a role in morpheme acquisition order. As a continuation of these studies, we have conducted this meta-analysis that includes the seven publications on the target topic, L1 influence on English grammatical morpheme acquisition order, between 2010-2020.

Due to the declining number of research studies on the morpheme acquisition order because of its complex and difficult nature, there were some limitations encountered. As this study set out as a meta-analysis, inclusion and exclusion criteria quite limited the number of included studies. This led us to examine only seven studies, which made it much more difficult to make generalizations due to the minority of participants. Some of the issues emerging from this finding relate specifically to the

materials utilized while teaching English to different L1 groups. The materials to be used in English language teaching should be prepared in accordance with the language structure of a particular L1 when necessary, taking into account different L1 groups, and should also be in accordance with the order of morpheme acquisition. In addition, language teachers should also be aware of the L1 influence on language learning, and taking this influence into account, they should teach the language with appropriate methods and strategies and should be able to predict the effects that may lead to negative transfer.

Conclusion

All in all, this meta-analysis examined the recent seven morpheme order studies which were selected within the established criteria to investigate the role of various L1 backgrounds and their consistency with the NOH by Krashen (1977) and their correlation with their presented TLU scores. It also examined the correlation between studies with the participants sharing the same L1 background. The findings revealed that although Spanish and Indonesian speaking participants had a correlation with the NOH, it is impossible to assert that there exists a clear natural order followed by the learners with each different L1 background. As

suggested by Luk and Shirai (2009), it is possible to mention the universal considerations of morpheme acquisition, but it is improbable to accept the existence of a universal order of acquisition, as proposed by Krashen (1977). On the other hand, the TLU scores of these studies showed strong correlations between Korean and Arabic, also between Persian and Filipino, lastly between Filipino and Spanish-Intermediates. Furthermore, only Arabic speaking learners had a positive correlation among themselves in the acquisition order. All these findings

suggested that the significance of morpheme order studies lies behind their partly predictable but very dynamic nature. Correspondingly, although there is an increasing and decreasing trend in morpheme studies throughout the years, these studies are of significant in revealing the importance of the role and transfer of L1 and other factors affecting the language learning process.

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**EXPERT EFL TEACHERS' VIEWS ON LESSONS
PLANNING FOR EXTERNAL QUALITY
ASSURANCE PURPOSES**

Miranda Karjagdi Çolak

Chapter 8

Expert EFL Teachers' Views on Lesson Planning for External Quality Assurance Purposes

MİRANDA KARJAGDİ ÇOLAK¹

Introduction

Lesson planning is a foundational aspect of teaching that encapsulates the professional knowledge and experience of educators. It serves as a roadmap for instructional activities, guiding teachers in their efforts to foster student learning and achieve curriculum objectives (Farrell, 2002; Richards, 1998; Stuhlman, Hamre, Downer and Pianta, 2010). Effective lesson planning not only enhances teaching quality but also supports reflective practice, enabling teachers to adapt their strategies to meet diverse classroom needs (Wright, 2010). However, the context-dependent and dynamic nature of lesson planning (Pang, 2016) necessitates a flexible approach, particularly for experienced teachers who often internalize these processes, rendering written plans less

essential (Enow & Goodwyn, 2017; Loughran, 2010).

Despite the established importance of lesson planning, its role within the framework of external quality assurance remains contentious. Accreditation processes often mandate detailed lesson plans as evidence of teaching effectiveness and to facilitate the lesson observations for evaluators, a practice intended to ensure high educational standards (Kotarska, 2019). However, this requirement can be perceived as restrictive and burdensome by educators, particularly when the rigidity of detailed plans conflicts with the fluid nature of classroom interactions (Moiinvaziri and Shatery, 2022). Research indicates that while classroom observations can promote professional growth and enhance instructional quality (Acar, Akgün Özpolat and Çomoğlu, 2023; Doğan and Yurtseven, 2017), the stress and anxiety associated with preparing detailed lesson plans can negatively impact teacher performance and creativity (Tuyisabe, Mandila and Gadi, 2022).

In Türkiye, concerns about the quality of English language education (Başibek et al., 2014; Kirkgoz, 2008) have prompted increased scrutiny of teaching practices through external evaluations. The

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current study aims to explore teachers' perceptions of detailed lesson planning within the context of external quality assurance in Turkish higher education. Specifically, it seeks to address the following research question:

What are the benefits and challenges of writing detailed lesson plans as a requirement for external quality assurance purposes from the expert EFL teachers' perspective? Are there any areas of improvement that could potentially contribute to the lesson planning practices and quality assurance processes in a tertiary context?

By examining the experiences and perspectives of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers, this chapter hopes to shed light on potential strategies for balancing the demands of quality assurance with the need for flexible and effective teaching practices.

Literature Review

Lesson Planning in Language Education

Teachers navigate classroom events by making pedagogical decisions informed by their knowledge (Loughran, 2010; Richards, 1998; Wright, 2010). Numerous studies demonstrate that lesson planning is a crucial aspect of the teaching profession, reflecting professional knowledge and experience (Farrell, 2013; John, 2006; Tsui,

2003). Lesson planning involves teachers outlining what they aim to accomplish in their classrooms through yearly, term, unit, weekly, and daily plans, with the daily lesson plan providing a detailed roadmap of how students will achieve specific learning objectives (Farrell, 2002). The internal processes of pedagogical reasoning for lesson planning are context-dependent and also dynamic (Pang, 2016). This is crucial because the effectiveness of a lesson is often linked to the quality of its planning (Richards, 1998), guiding teachers in their instructional decisions and fostering student learning.

Instruction, on the other hand, is the observable execution of a lesson plan, involving the practical strategies and actions teachers use to guide students through the designed learning process (Pang, 2016). However, the transition to an information society has transformed pedagogical approaches, making learner-determined activities, varied methods, small heterogeneous groups, mutual support, and learner-paced progress essential in contemporary education. Enow and Goodwyn (2017) suggest that lesson planning for experienced teachers evolves from a visible, practical process into an almost invisible, internalized skill. They emphasize that these teachers develop expertise through the ability to adapt and refine their lesson plans dynamically in

response to classroom needs. For teacher experts, "planning" transforms into a form of experimental improvisation, leveraging deeply ingrained examples of past successful learning designs, thus rendering the written lesson plan often redundant in these scenarios.

The Role of Lesson Observations in Quality Assurance

Ensuring high-quality education is a universal concern across all educational contexts, with teachers playing a vital role in achieving success through effective teaching and learning practices. The evidence strongly supports the necessity and urgency for an enhanced emphasis on quality in English language education (Staub, 2019). Using Türkiye as an example, research consistently highlights significant concerns regarding the English proficiency levels among university students (Başibek et al., 2014; Dearden, Macaro and Akincioglu, 2016; Kirkgoz, 2008). Accreditation enables institutions to demonstrate their mission and commitment to quality through defined standards, with teaching and learning being a central criterion in many global quality assurance systems (Kotarska, 2019). Written lesson plans are a critical element, particularly in external quality assurance processes, as they illustrate how teachers organize lessons in relation to their instructional activities, providing valuable insights into

their pedagogical strategies (Farrell, 2013). Stuhlman, Hamre, Downer and Pianta (2023) propose a model illustrating the crucial role of observing teachers' behaviours in systematically enhancing the adoption of effective classroom practices, linking quality improvement resources to positive outcomes for both teachers and students.

The potential of classroom observations as a part of professional learning activities is highlighted by Acar, Akgün Özpolat and Çomoğlu (2023) as their findings suggest that in the Turkish context, when tailored by teachers themselves classroom observations can promote professional growth by fostering empowering, collaborative, and sustainable practices. Similarly, Doğan and Yurtseven's (2017) study investigates the impact of various professional learning opportunities on instructional quality among middle-school teachers in Türkiye. They suggest that professional development activities that include classroom observations, among others, significantly enhance instructional quality, highlighting the importance of schools as venues for professional learning and the potential of collaborative structures to promote teacher development. In addition to professional development, classroom observations have also been studied as an evaluation tool. For example, Tuyisabe, Mandila and Gadi

(2022) explored teachers' views on Quality Assurance officers' classroom observations to enhance students' performance in the CSEE in Mwanga district in Tanzania. They used a quantitative survey with 95 participants, including teachers and school administrators. Their findings showed generally positive perceptions of these observations' impact on teaching and learning. However, past experiences and communication styles with officers influenced these views, highlighting the need for improved interactions and follow-up strategies to optimize their effectiveness.

Özdemir (2020) investigates the impact of principals' leadership content knowledge, evaluation practices, and teachers' professional learning activities on classroom instruction in Türkiye. Findings indicate that teachers who perceive evaluations as useful engage more in professional learning activities, leading to improved classroom practices, highlighting the importance of effective leadership and feedback in enhancing instructional quality. While classroom observations are generally viewed positively, writing lesson plans for these observations is perceived differently. An Iranian study on EFL teachers' perceptions of lesson planning by Moiiinvaziri and Shatery (2022) suggests that while effective lesson plans can improve teaching, many teachers find

lesson planning impractical or challenging. The study found moderate interest in lesson planning overall, suggesting the need for educational authorities to address these perceptions and implement strategies to support effective lesson planning, potentially benefiting students overall.

Despite the extensive research highlighting the importance of lesson planning and classroom observations in enhancing instructional quality, there remains a significant gap in understanding how these practices can be optimized in different educational contexts. Specifically, the varying perceptions and challenges associated with writing lesson plans, particularly among experienced teachers and in contexts like Türkiye, suggest a need for further investigation into adaptive and supportive strategies. Moreover, while classroom observations are generally seen as beneficial (Acar et al., 2023; Doğan and Yurtseven, 2017) their effectiveness can be hindered by negative views on writing lesson planning, past experiences and poor communication with evaluators (Tuyisabe et al., 2022). This underscores the necessity for more nuanced and context-specific approaches to professional development and quality assurance in education. Addressing the literature gap on experienced teachers' views on writing detailed lesson plans and their perceived

instructional effectiveness is crucial for achieving this goal.

Methodology

This study employed a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques to explore teachers' views on detailed lesson planning and its relationship with performance during lesson observations. The research design was informed by established methodologies in educational research, which emphasize the value of using multiple data sources to gain a comprehensive understanding of complex phenomena (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The primary data collection tool was a questionnaire consisting of five open-ended questions, designed to elicit teachers' perspectives on the intricacies of detailed lesson planning and its impact on their instructional performance. This approach aligns with the recommendations of Dörnyei and Taguchi (2010), who highlight the effectiveness of open-ended questions in capturing nuanced responses and providing rich qualitative data.

Following the completion of the questionnaire, a focus group discussion was conducted with five teachers who volunteered to provide more in-depth insights into the topic. Focus groups are a well-regarded method in educational research for exploring participants' attitudes, beliefs, and experiences in a

collaborative setting (Morgan, 1997). The participants in the focus group were selected to represent a diverse cross-section of professional service lengths, qualifications, and expertise, ensuring a representative sample of the teaching staff. This diversity facilitated a broader range of perspectives and a deeper understanding of the issues under investigation. The combination of open-ended questionnaires and focus group discussions allowed for triangulation of data, enhancing the validity and reliability of the findings (Patton, 2002).

Participants

Participants in this study were randomly selected based on voluntary responses to a survey distributed among the staff. A total of 20 teachers participated by responding to a 5-question questionnaire, providing a diverse representation across various levels of professional experience, qualifications, and instructional expertise within the educational context under study. Following the survey, 5 teachers among the initial 20 respondents to the survey volunteered to participate in a focus group discussion, contributing further insights through their willingness to engage in in-depth dialogue and reflection on the study's themes and results. The focus group consisted of five Turkish teachers with substantial experience in the field, ranging from 7 to

22 years. Their qualifications included Bachelor's, Master's, and PhD degrees in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and Linguistics.

Instruments

Data collection instruments included a questionnaire and a focus group discussion, designed to complement each other and provide a comprehensive exploration of teachers' perspectives on lesson planning and its relationship with educational quality assurance. Details of the instruments are outlined below:

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire utilized in this study consisted of 5 open-ended questions aimed at eliciting teachers' views on detailed lesson planning and its impact on their instructional practices, particularly during external educational quality assurance processes. The questionnaire format allowed for qualitative insights into teachers' perceptions, experiences, and challenges related to lesson planning in the context of the study. It was designed to gather nuanced responses regarding the effectiveness, practicality, and perceived impact of detailed lesson planning on teaching and learning outcomes. The questionnaire inquired about teachers' experiences with writing detailed lesson

planning, their perceptions of its necessity and practicality for lesson observations, and how it impacts their teaching performance during quality assurance evaluations. Additionally, it sought strategies for balancing detailed planning with maintaining a natural classroom atmosphere and suggestions for improving the lesson observation process to support professional growth.

The Focus Group

A focus group discussion was conducted with 5 teachers who volunteered to participate, providing an opportunity for in-depth exploration and discussion of themes emerging from the questionnaire responses. The focus group session, lasting approximately 1 hour and 20 minutes, utilized a semi-structured format with guiding questions aligned with the questionnaire items. This approach facilitated deeper insights into teachers' shared experiences, concerns, and suggestions regarding lesson planning practices and their implications for educational quality assurance. Conducted in a collaborative setting, the focus group enriched the study by allowing participants to articulate and debate their perspectives on optimizing lesson planning processes within their professional contexts.

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection for the study took place during the Fall Term of the 2021-

2022 Academic Year at a state university in Türkiye, known for offering Bachelor's programs with a significant 30% of courses taught in English Medium Instruction (EMI), particularly within the Engineering Faculty. The School of Foreign Languages (SFL) at the university provides a one-year English preparatory program to prepare students for their future departments, many of which involve EMI courses (Kırkgöz, 2008). Formal permission was obtained from the directorate of the School of Foreign Languages to conduct the study. The data collection involved two main methods: an online questionnaire administered to the academic staff (n=36), with responses gathered from twenty teachers, and focus group interviews conducted with 5 lecturers. The focus group sessions were audio-recorded with participants' consent, and all participants volunteered to take part in the study.

Data Analysis

The data collected from the questionnaire and focus group interviews were analysed using qualitative content analysis, allowing for a comprehensive exploration of teachers' perspectives on detailed lesson planning and its impact on instructional practices within the context of educational quality assurance.

The responses from the open-ended questionnaire were analyzed using thematic analysis, a method widely

recognized for identifying patterns and themes within qualitative data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Initially, all responses were coded to capture recurring ideas related to perceptions of detailed lesson planning's necessity, its effects on teaching performance during inspections, strategies for balancing planning requirements with classroom dynamics, and suggestions for improving the lesson observation process. These initial codes were then organized into broader themes, aligning with the research questions and objectives of the study. The thematic analysis aimed to provide a nuanced understanding of teachers' experiences and attitudes towards detailed lesson planning, shedding light on both the challenges and benefits perceived by participants.

The focus group interviews, comprising five lecturers, were transcribed verbatim and analyzed using a similar thematic analysis approach. Themes and patterns emerging from the discussions were identified through iterative readings of the transcripts and systematic coding of the data (Guest, MacQueen and Namey, 2012). The analysis focused on elucidating detailed insights into how teachers navigate the demands of detailed lesson planning in practice, the impact on their instructional effectiveness, and their perspectives on the efficacy of the current observation process. This qualitative

approach enabled a deeper exploration of participants' perceptions and experiences within the specific educational context, highlighting nuanced viewpoints that complemented and enriched the results from the questionnaire.

Ethical Permissions of the Research

This work adheres to all guidelines established by the "Higher Education Institutions Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Directive". Specifically, it avoids any actions listed under the directive's "Actions Contrary to Ethics" section.

Ethics committee permission information

Name of the board that conducts the ethical evaluation = Scientific, Engineering

and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Date of the ethical evaluation decision= October 9th, 2021

Ethical evaluation document number number= E-69707128-050.99-30577

Results and Discussion

Results from the Questionnaire

Observations of teaching and learning emphasize professional growth through reflexivity, yet external quality assurance evaluations have caused potential ineffectiveness due to emotional conflicts stemming from writing detailed lesson planning requirements. Themes extracted from the survey responses were categorized into positive and negative attributes:

Table 1. *Results from the Questionnaire*

Major Themes	Attributes	Codes	Number of codes
Teachers' Description of Detailed Lesson Plans	Positive	Informative, Easy to follow.	7
	Negative	Too detailed, Time bound/hard to follow, Unnecessary, Restricting, Useless, Impractical, Overwhelming, Pointless/Redundant, Anti-humanitarian, Areas of Improvement.	36
Teachers' Self-Reported Teaching Performance During Lesson	Positive	More aware of objectives and aims. More stressed, Confused and nervous, Restricted, Limited creativity,	10
Observations Due to Detailed Lesson Plans	Negative	Decreased instructional quality/performance, More pressure.	21

The survey data highlighted that teachers integrate technology more deeply into their lesson plans, focus on timing, and enhance communicative approaches. However, teachers expressed negative sentiments towards detailed lesson planning, citing issues such as excessive detail, impracticality, and its inhibitory effect on teaching creativity and performance during inspections. They emphasized the rigidity of lesson observation proforma and the stress associated with detailed planning requirements. An important subtheme mentioned by all teachers was that there are many areas of improvement that could be suggested to the quality assurance bodies in terms of writing less restrictive lesson plans.

Results from Focus Groups

The focus group discussion among teachers at BTU SFL highlighted several key themes regarding their perceptions and experiences with detailed lesson planning and its impact on their teaching practices. Teachers commonly expressed that detailed lesson plans feel restrictive and impractical. They noted that the rigid structure imposed by detailed plans does not align well with the dynamic nature of classroom interactions. Teacher 1 mentioned that while they share objectives and follow a pacing document, additional detailed planning feels unnecessary and

burdensome and further commented "To be honest, I didn't even follow the lesson plan during the observation". There was a consensus that detailed lesson plans stifle creativity. Teachers felt that the need to adhere strictly to pre-planned activities and timings detracts from their ability to respond flexibly to student needs and spontaneous teaching opportunities. Teacher 3 compared it to "riding a bicycle but having to report how you ride it," emphasizing the disconnect between planning and actual classroom dynamics.

While some acknowledged the potential utility of lesson planning in terms of anticipating problems and organizing activities, many felt that the current format of detailed plans adds more stress than benefit. Teacher 5 expressed frustration at spending time on detailed plans that were not practically used during evaluations, highlighting a perceived mismatch between planning expectations and actual teaching realities. Similarly, Teacher 2 added "It was impractical for me even in the preparation stage, I had to write every bit of detail for an outsider". Teachers suggested alternative approaches such as providing outlines of activities without strict timings, focusing on objectives rather than detailed interaction patterns, and emphasizing reflection after lessons rather than detailed pre-planning. They argued that these approaches would better support their

teaching practices and reduce stress associated with inspections.

There was a critique of the standardized nature of quality assurance requirements across different educational levels. Teachers questioned whether the same stringent requirements for lesson planning are suitable for university-level teaching compared to primary or secondary education. Overall, teachers felt that the pressure to conform to detailed lesson plans during inspections often detracts from their ability to perform effectively. This sentiment was echoed in discussions about feeling stressed, anxious, and unable

Discussion

The results of the study align closely with the literature on lesson planning in language education and the role of lesson observations in quality assurance. The literature highlights the importance of lesson planning as a reflection of professional knowledge and experience, guiding instructional decisions and fostering student learning (Farrell, 2013; John, 2006; Tsui, 2003). However, it also points to the dynamic and context-dependent nature of pedagogical reasoning (Pang, 2016), suggesting that experienced teachers often internalize the planning process, making written plans less necessary (Enow and Goodwyn, 2017). The questionnaire responses reflect a significant divergence between the

to fully engage with students and lesson content when constrained by strict planning requirements. As Teacher 4 points out, "Lesson plan is not obstacle to do certain things but when somebody comes to observe then it becomes an obstacle because you are restricted to the times written there". In conclusion, the focus group discussion highlighted a strong consensus among teachers that current detailed lesson planning requirements for evaluations of teaching and learning impose unnecessary constraints on teaching creativity and flexibility.

perceived utility of detailed lesson plans and their practical impact on teaching performance. While some teachers found lesson plans to be informative and easy to follow, the majority expressed negative sentiments, describing them as too detailed, time-bound, and restrictive. This supports the literature's assertion that while lesson planning is crucial, overly prescriptive requirements can be counterproductive (Moiinvaziri and Shatery, 2022). The detailed lesson planning requirements appear to induce stress, reduce creativity, and negatively impact instructional quality during inspections, echoing the findings of Özdemir (2020) and Tuyisabe et al. (2022).

The focus group discussions revealed that teachers find detailed lesson

plans restrictive and impractical, hindering their ability to adapt to the dynamic nature of classroom interactions. This sentiment aligns with Enow and Goodwyn's (2017) suggestion that experienced teachers prefer a more flexible approach, using internalized planning skills. Teachers emphasized that detailed plans stifle creativity and impose unnecessary stress, detracting from their ability to engage effectively with students. This is consistent with the literature, which advocates for adaptive and supportive strategies in lesson planning to enhance instructional quality (Acar et al., 2023; Doğan and Yurtseven, 2017).

Conclusions and Recommendations

The focal point of this study was a critical aspect of the external quality assurance process: the requirement for detailed lesson plans for classroom observations. In particular, the study aimed to explore EFL teachers' views towards writing lesson plans in relation to their perceived teaching performance. The primary goal of these observations is to gather evidence on curriculum effectiveness in practice. However, requiring detailed lesson plans can inadvertently reduce teaching quality by increasing stress among teachers. Reports from teachers indicate that writing these detailed plans is impractical, time-

consuming, and restrictive, negatively impacting their performance. Teachers advocate for more flexible and reflective approaches to lesson planning, which would support their professional growth and instructional effectiveness. This suggests a need for quality assurance systems to reconsider the role of detailed lesson plans and to develop more nuanced, context-specific strategies that respect teachers' professional expertise and the dynamic nature of classroom teaching.

To address these challenges, I propose a simplified approach to lesson planning:

- Lesson objectives, which would allow observers to see how objectives are expressed by teachers, allowing teachers to focus more effectively on these goals.
- A broad list of activities without detailed descriptions of teacher-student interactions providing opportunities for more context-dependent decision-making and ultimately reduced stress. This approach aligns with typical lesson planning practices and allows teachers to maintain momentum and creativity.
- Flexible time-frames that exclude exact timings, providing larger time frames that accommodate the variability in technology-led

teaching, which can cause delays or speed up activities.

- Anticipated problems that would allow inspectors to observe how realistic these predictions are and what strategies teachers use to address potential issues.

To summarise, teachers' negative views about writing detailed lesson plans outweigh the positive. Thus, in this chapter I recommend a less wordy proforma for written lesson plans that would facilitate

the planning process and enhance teaching and learning outcomes. This simplified format would still be valuable for observers. Encouraging post-observation reflection through focus groups or short written responses can foster shared understanding of the classroom's social dynamics. This, in turn, can create a more positive teacher attitude toward practices that enhance teaching quality.

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STRATEGIES-BASED INSTRUCTION IN FOCUS: STUDENT TEACHERS' INSIGHTS ON INSTRUCTIONAL QUALITY

Muhlise oşgun Ögeyik

Chapter 9

Strategies-based

instruction in focus: student teachers' insights on instructional quality

Muhlise COŞGUN ÖGEYİK¹

Chapter Highlights

This chapter discusses the principles of strategies-based instruction with the following issues:

A range of dimensions reflecting various approaches to strategy use and strategies-based instruction among learners

- Exploring the multifaceted role and significance of strategy use in education
- Discussing the power of various strategies that not only enhances learning experiences but also fosters critical thinking and problem-solving skills among learners
- Acknowledging and promoting different learner strategies for creating a more dynamic and effective learning environment

From a pedagogical perspective, the approaches that influence student behaviors

- Exploring the reality about learners in terms of the pedagogy of strategy use
- Examining critically the learning preferences and experiences of learners
- Recognizing the diverse ways in which learners approach learning tasks for promoting self-regulated learning skills

Strategies-based instruction and the multifaceted techniques that enhance learning

- Addressing strategy use issues and providing practical guidelines for educators
- Integrating evidence-based teaching strategies and fostering dialogue around effective learning practices
- Promoting learner autonomy, engagement, and academic success through strategies-based instruction

Integrating strategies-based instruction into teacher training and designing

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effective teaching methods that create an inclusive classroom environment

- Equipping educators with a repertoire of instructional strategies and pedagogical approaches
- Fostering strategic attitudes and promoting differentiated instruction
- Creating inclusive learning environments that optimize learning outcomes and promote lifelong learning skills

Introduction

Learners in language learning process as incorporating active and self-regulated participants have multifaceted roles for enabling effective language acquisition, since learners' pivotal roles shape their language learning journey through their attitudes, motivations, and approaches to learning. The learner's role in the language learning process is dynamic and complicated, characterized by some key aspects such as active engagement, intrinsic motivation, self-regulated learning, strategic use of language learning strategies, and autonomy. By embracing their role as active agents in their language learning journey, learners can use their potential to achieve meaningful and permanent language proficiency and communicative competence.

Here are several key aspects of the learner's role in the language learning process:

Active Engagement: Active engagement fosters deeper understanding, retention, and application of language knowledge and skills (Anderson et al., 2004; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003). Learners as active participants engage in the language learning process through listening, speaking, reading, and writing activities. By engaging in authentic language contexts, learners are able to improve their communicative competence, linguistic accuracy, and fluency.

Motivation and Attitude: Motivation is the force that significantly influences learners' language learning outcomes. Conversely, negative attitudes or lack of motivation can hinder learning progress. Motivated learners show desired behaviors in learning process and exhibit enthusiasm, determination, and positive attitudes towards language learning challenges (Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002). Motivation is fostered through internal and external sources: intrinsic motivation, stemming from personal interest or enjoyment in learning the language, often leads to sustained effort for greater proficiency gains (Dörnyei, 1990; Brown, 2007; Dörnyei, 2012). Thus, cultivating a supportive learning environment and fostering learners' intrinsic motivation are

crucial for enhancing language learning effectiveness. Accordingly, extrinsic motivation, increasing from external sources, also lead to effort and success.

Self-Regulated Learning: Self-regulated learning behaviors, involving setting goals, planning and monitoring learning progress, and regulating strategies, are demonstrated by successful language learners (Bandura, 1991; Tseng et al., 2006; Rose, 2012). Since self-regulated learners are able to take the responsibility of their learning process, they can adopt practical approaches to cope with probable obstacles for optimizing their learning outcomes. During the learning process, learners can make reasonable decisions by reflecting on their strengths and weaknesses, and they can adapt their study routines to align with their individual needs and learning preferences.

Learner Autonomy and Independence: In language education, one of the key goals is to train autonomous and independent

Learner strategies

Learner strategies contain a variety of conscious actions, behaviors, and techniques employed by learners to facilitate their learning, understanding, remembering, and application of a second or foreign language (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1993; Griffiths, 2018). These strategies can range from cognitive processes to metacognitive approaches,

language learners. Autonomous learners who take the responsibility of their learning process seek out opportunities for discovery, practice, and self-directed learning (Benson, 2006; Iamudom & Tangkiengsirisin, 2020). By fostering learner autonomy, educators shape lifelong learning situations where learners are equipped with the essential abilities to carry on their language learning process beyond formal educational settings.

Strategy Use: Learning is also shaped through a variety of individual conscious techniques to enhance the expected learning outcome. These techniques, which are called as learner strategies, cover cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective dimensions for coping with the mechanisms and challenges of learning (Cohen, 1998; Griffiths & Oxford, 2014). Good learners use suitable strategies according to task demands and learning objectives.

involving mental functions and self-regulation techniques for maximizing the effectiveness of the learning journey. In order to maximize their own learning potential, learners are likely to use strategies that are consistent with their learning styles. Cognitive processes including memory encoding and problem-solving techniques form the beginning of effective learning process, while

metacognitive approaches involve higher-order thinking skills. By engaging in metacognitive processes, learners may gain awareness about their own learning processes, since metacognitive strategies allow them to plan, monitor, and evaluate their understanding by setting goals and adapting their strategies accordingly. There exists a dynamic interplay between cognitive and metacognitive strategies that enables learners to design their learning process with greater efficacy and intentionality. The choice of suitable strategies may maximize learning potential of learners and lead to enhanced learning outcomes.

Learner strategies are classified as learning strategies and communication strategies in

accordance with the techniques. Learning strategies are input driven, while communication strategies are output oriented. Learning strategies are implemented for comprehension, and communication strategies are employed for developing verbal or non-verbal mechanisms for fruitful communication in the target language (Brown, 2007). Oxford (1993) further distinguishes between direct and indirect strategies, including a range of cognitive, affective, and social dimensions. While direct strategies focus on information processing and retention, indirect strategies involve a variety of actions such as planning, monitoring, and self-evaluation. The types and categories of learner strategies and description of each category are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. Categories of learner strategies

<i>Learner strategies</i>	<i>Categories</i>	<i>Explanation</i>
<i>LEARNING STRATEGIES</i>	Cognitive Strategies	Repetition; ,Resourcing; Translation; Grouping; Note-taking; Deduction; Recombination; Imagery; Auditory representation; Keyword; Contextualization; Elaboration; Transfer; Inferencing
	Metacognitive Strategies	Advance organizers; Directed attention; Selective attention; Self-management; Functional planning; Self-monitoring; Delayed production; Self-evaluation
	Socioaffective Strategies	Cooperation: working with peers to obtain feedback, Question for clarification: asking a teacher or speakers for repetition, explanation, examples
<i>COMMUNICATIONS STRATEGIES</i>	Avoidance Strategies	Message abandonment: leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties Topic avoidance: avoiding topic areas or concepts that pose language difficulties
	Compensatory Strategies	Circumlocution; Approximation; Use of all-purpose words; Word coinage; Prefabricated patterns; Nonlinguistic signals; Literal translation; Foreignising; Code-switching; Appeal for help; Stalling or time gaining strategies

Source: Adopted from Brown 2007, pp. 134-138

Language learner strategies, whether input-driven or output oriented, reveal learners' conscious efforts for engaging actively in the language learning process and adapting their techniques to achieve their linguistic goals effectively. Learning strategies are the guiding principles that direct learners' approaches to tasks with the aim of achieving success. Learning strategies also encompass a variety of actions, behaviors, and techniques employed by learners to enhance their language skills and to improve their progress in mastering a second or foreign language. (Mayer, 1988; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1993). Communication strategies are implemented for production effectively in the target language. They are potentially conscious plans for coping with the challenges of communication in the target language (Brown, 2007). Those efforts represent the strategic competence exhibited by proficient learners, underscoring the pivotal role of learning strategies in language acquisition.

Within the realm of foreign language teaching, there has been a notable interest towards the explicit instruction of learner strategies. Various pedagogical models for the integration of strategies-based instruction into language tasks have emerged to equip learners with effective strategies use. Accordingly, a variety of assessment methods such as observations,

interviews, and strategy questionnaires are used to gain insights about learners' strategy use and to promote effective strategy awareness and to optimize learners' language learning potential and proficiency development (Mayer, 1988).

Strategies-based instruction

In recent years, the strategies-based instruction has received a considerable amount of attention. Increasing students' consciousness about the importance of strategies and training them for using suitable strategies can be noticeably a constructive and effective thing to do (Griffiths, 2018; Pawlak, & Oxford, 2018; Swan, 2012). Teaching strategies separately or integrating the strategy instruction into language tasks can be supportive for increasing awareness level of students while using appropriate strategy consistent with their learning style. For deciding on which strategy is the most efficient for learners among the taxonomies listed by theoreticians, categorizing strategies to be instructed would be more useful (Swan, 2012).

The important point here is that teachers are expected to be responsible for assessing students' needs and expectations, their planning and decision making processes in order to help them to be autonomous learners (Williams & Burden, 2000; Cebeci, 2016). In language learning process, learners' tasks are to

manage their own demands, and the teacher's task is to assist learners to fulfill the demands. O'Malley and Chamot (1990:158) list the Strategic Teaching Model for guiding teachers to instruct strategies in the classroom: Assess strategy use with think-aloud, interviews, questionnaire; Explain strategy by naming it, telling how to use it step by step; Model strategy by demonstrating it, verbalizing own thought process while doing task; Scaffolding instruction by providing support while students practice, adjusting support to student needs, phasing out support to encourage autonomous strategy use; Develop motivation by providing successful experiences, relating strategy use to improved performance.

As regards the importance of strategies-based instruction, it is noteworthy to argue the issue for teacher training process. That is, since strategies-based instruction is considerably discussed and suggested in the literature, student teachers also need to be trained for checking strategies use and strategies-based instruction. Additionally, they can be guided to reflect on their experiences in terms of strategies-based education. Through reflection, individuals can recall their own experience by recapturing and reevaluating it (Boud et al., 1985), build skills for learning (Helyer, 2015; Uzun, 2015; Uzun, 2016), cope with the difficulties in terms of anxiety (Güvendir, 2014), and find solutions to

adaptation problems triggered by sociocultural factors (Güvendir, 2017). Accordingly, teachers can improve and enhance their teaching skills collaboratively (Krutka, et. al., 2014; Cebeci & Yıldız, 2017) after getting their students' reflections. As Schon (1983) stated, reflection in action orients the person to think about the action, to have a feeling about it, and to practice according to that feeling. Therefore, while engaged in strategies-based education, student teachers may conceptualize how to use strategies-based instruction and how to reflect on it to help their future learners.

Methodology

This study was planned as a qualitative research design with the purpose of investigating student teachers' reflections on strategies-based instruction. The participants of the study were thirty-two student teachers who were attending third year of English Language Teacher Training program at a Turkish university. The participants were trained in the methodology courses in the program.

Research questions

- To what extent do student teachers possess experience in strategies-based instruction?
- What are the perceptions of student teachers regarding the importance and relevance of strategies-based instruction?

Data collection instruments

For collecting data, interview sessions were arranged. The student teachers'

perceptions of strategies-based instruction were recorded, transcribed and analyzed via content analysis.

Findings

Table 2. Student teachers' perceptions of strategies-based instruction

Themes	Categories		
	Positive	Neutral	Negative
<i>Sharing Ideas</i>	feeling comfortable sharing their ideas, citing reasons such as fostering collaboration and gaining new perspectives	feeling indifferent about sharing ideas, stating that it depends on the context or the group they are working with	feeling hesitant or uncomfortable sharing their ideas due to fear of judgment or lack of confidence
Number of mentions	18	8	6
<i>Participation in Group Work</i>	Active Participation actively engaging in group work, highlighting benefits such as enhanced creativity and shared responsibility	Limited Participation preferring individual work over group work, citing concerns about unequal contributions or conflicting schedules	Variable Participation varies depending on factors such as the nature of the task or the dynamics within the group
Number of mentions	20	7	5
<i>Acknowledgment for Collaboration</i>	Acknowledged Efforts collaborative efforts were acknowledged or praised by teachers or peers, noting that it boosted their morale and motivation	Lack of Recognition not receiving acknowledgment for their collaborative efforts, stating that it demotivated them and made them feel undervalued	
Number of mentions	16	6	
<i>Seeking Help When Needed</i>	Willingness to Seek Help willingness to seek help when they encounter difficulties, emphasizing the importance of support and guidance in the learning process	Reluctance to Seek Help feeling hesitant or reluctant to ask for help, attributing it to factors such as fear of appearing incompetent or self-reliance tendencies	Mixed Feelings experiencing mixed feelings about seeking help, acknowledging both the benefits and challenges associated with reaching out for assistance
Number of mentions	21	7	4
<i>Making Lists of Accomplishments</i>	Value of Making Lists the value of making lists to organize their tasks and track their progress, stating that it helps them stay focused and motivated	Challenges with Making Lists facing challenges with making lists, such as forgetting to update them regularly or feeling overwhelmed by the sheer number of tasks	Mixed Feelings mixed feelings about making lists, acknowledging both the benefits and limitations of this organizational strategy
Number of mentions	19	10	3
<i>Acknowledging Weaknesses</i>	Importance of Acknowledgment the importance of acknowledging weaknesses as a crucial step towards self-improvement and personal growth	Difficulty in Acknowledging Weaknesses finding it challenging to acknowledge their weaknesses, citing reasons such as fear of failure or ego	Constructive Attitude adopting a constructive attitude, viewing weaknesses as opportunities for learning and development rather than shortcomings
Number of mentions	20	9	3
<i>Identifying Strengths</i>	Self-Reflection identifying and reflecting on their strengths, noting that it helped them build confidence and leverage their talents	Limited Reflection not spending much time reflecting on their strengths, stating that they were more focused on addressing their weaknesses	Importance of Self-Awareness the importance of self-awareness and self-reflection in recognizing and leveraging their strengths effectively
Number of mentions	18	11	3
<i>Acknowledgment for Good Work</i>	Positive Feedback their good work was acknowledged or praised, noting that it motivated them to continue striving for excellence	Lack of Recognition not receiving acknowledgment for their good work, stating that it demotivated them and made them feel unappreciated	Impact of Feedback emphasized the importance of feedback and recognition in fostering a positive learning environment and promoting student engagement
Number of mentions	16	8	8

These counts provide a quantitative representation of the frequency with which each response was mentioned by the participants, offering insights into the prevalence of different attitudes and experiences among the student teachers about strategies-based instruction. The findings from the content analysis of the student teachers' responses reveal several key insights into their attitudes and experiences within the educational context.

The majority of the student teachers expressed a positive attitude towards collaboration by highlighting the importance of strategies-based instruction in enhancing learning outcomes and fostering a sense of community within the classroom. Their willingness to share ideas and actively participate in tasks suggests an appreciation for collaborative learning approaches that promote peer interaction and knowledge sharing. While many student teachers reported positive experiences of acknowledgment and support from educators and peers, a significant proportion also expressed a desire for more recognition of their efforts. This underscores the importance of providing timely and meaningful feedback about strategies to reinforce learners' positive behaviors and motivate continued engagement. Addressing the need for recognition can help foster a supportive learning environment where learners feel valued and empowered to succeed.

The findings highlighted the significance of self-reflection in promoting learning and development. The student teachers who have constructive attitude toward learning viewed challenges as opportunities for growth and actively sought feedback to improve their skills. Regarding this point, it may be assumed that encouraging self-reflection and resilience through strategy training can help students develop a positive attitude towards learning and cultivate essential lifelong learning skills.

The responses also reflected the diversity of learning preferences and approaches among the student teachers. While some expressed enthusiasm for specific learning strategies such as making lists or seeking help when needed, others faced challenges or felt indifferent towards these approaches. This point implies that recognizing and accommodating individual differences in learning preferences is essential for creating inclusive learning environments. Acknowledging the variety of learning preferences and needs among learners highlights the importance of individualized and adapted instruction. By tailoring instructional strategies, activities, and assessments to accommodate various learning styles, interests, and abilities, educators can create learning environments where all students can succeed.

The student teachers' positive attitudes towards collaboration and group work highlighted the importance of social learning dynamics in the classroom instructed through strategy training. The instruction of socio-affective strategies for collaborative activities not only facilitate knowledge sharing but also promote critical thinking, communication skills, and teamwork. By engaging in collaborative tasks, learners may have the opportunity to learn from one another's perspectives, experiences, and insights, enriching their overall learning experience.

The student teachers' desire for recognition and acknowledgment emphasized the motivational power of feedback via strategies-based instruction in the learning process. Such feedback not only informs learners of their progress but also validates their efforts and encourages continued engagement. Providing specific, constructive feedback about strategies use that highlights the strengths and areas for improvement can help students build self-efficacy, ultimately enhancing their motivation and performance.

The findings suggest that encouraging learners to identify their strengths and weaknesses, set goals, and monitor their progress promotes metacognitive awareness and agency in their learning. By teaching students how to effectively manage their learning processes and adapt

their strategies as needed, educators can equip them with the skills they need to succeed in both academic and real-world contexts. At its core, the findings emphasized the importance of creating a culture of continuous improvement in education. By fostering a growth mentality, promoting collaboration, and providing meaningful feedback, educators can impose the belief that it is possible to learn through effort and self-determination. Such mentality not only enhances academic achievement but also fosters resilience, adaptability, and a lifelong desire of learning that extends far beyond the classroom.

Discussion

The discussion of the findings was presented by addressing the key themes emerging from the analysis and their implications for educational practice. The content analysis of responses provided by thirty-two student teachers offered valuable insights into their attitudes and experiences regarding various aspects of strategies-based instruction. One prominent theme that emerged from the analysis was the importance of a collaborative learning environment. The majority of the participants expressed a willingness to share ideas and actively participate in learning process through strategies-based instruction. Positive experiences of collaboration can be

associated with feelings of recognition and motivation. These findings underscore the significance of fostering collaborative practices in educational settings to promote engagement and peer learning.

The analysis revealed the significant impact of strategies-based instruction on the participants' motivation and engagement. The participants appreciated their collaborative efforts and good work, emphasizing its role in boosting confidence and reinforcing positive behaviors after being exposed to strategies-based instruction. However, a notable proportion of the participants also expressed a lack of recognition for their contributions, which highlighted the need for educators to ensure reasonable training mechanisms of strategies to support all learners' learning and development.

Another important theme that emerged was the value of self-reflection. Many participants acknowledged the importance of reflecting on their strengths and weaknesses as a means of self-improvement. They viewed challenges and failures as opportunities for learning and growth. These findings underscore the importance of promoting a culture of self-awareness and resilience in educational settings through strategies-based instruction to empower learners to cope with possible challenges and persist in their learning journey.

The analysis also revealed individual differences in learning preferences and approaches among the participants. While some expressed enthusiasm for outside assignments and making lists to organize their tasks, others faced challenges or felt indifferent towards these strategies. Similarly, attitudes towards seeking help varied, with some participants feeling comfortable asking for assistance while others hesitated due to fear of judgment or self-reliance tendencies. These findings highlight the importance of recognizing and accommodating dissimilar learning needs and preferences of learners to foster an inclusive learning environment.

Based on these findings, several implications for educational practice emerge. Educators should attempt to create a collaborative and supportive learning environment that encourages active participation, peer collaboration, and positive feedback through strategies-based instruction. Implementing strategies for various activities such as group work, peer assessment, and recognition programs can enhance learner engagement and motivation. Additionally, promoting self-reflection, constructive attitude, and personalized learning approaches can empower learners to take ownership of their learning and support lifelong learning skills.

The findings also have important implications for educational practices. Educators can enhance learner engagement and motivation by incorporating collaborative learning activities, implementing effective feedback strategies, and encouraging students to take ownership of their learning. Additionally, investigating the effectiveness of interventions aimed at promoting self-reflection could provide valuable insights into enhancing individual learning outcomes and well-being. It is important to acknowledge the limitations of this study, including the small sample size and potential prejudices inherent in self-reported data. Future research could explore these themes with the participation of larger populations to enhance the generalizability of the findings. Additionally, longitudinal studies could investigate the long-term impact of strategies-based instruction on learners' academic achievement and personal development.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings from this content analysis provide valuable insights into the attitudes and experiences of the student teachers about strategies-based instruction regarding collaborative learning environments, feedback mechanisms, self-reflection, and individual learning preferences. Generally, the findings underscore the importance of strategies-based instruction for creating supportive and inclusive learning environments that recognize and accommodate the dissimilar needs and preferences of students. By recognizing and addressing the varied needs and preferences, educators can create learning environments that encourage learners to succeed academically and personally. Through strategies-based instruction for fostering collaboration, providing meaningful feedback, and promoting self-reflection and constructive attitude, educators can empower learners to find their own ways autonomously in their educational journey.

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THOUGH COURSEBOOKS: DOOMED TO FEEL LIKE STRANGER?

Nalan Elçin Kanburoğlu

Chapter 10

Through Coursebooks: Doomed to Feel Like Strangers?

NALAN ERÇİN
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Literature Review

Throughout history, learning a language has served various purposes and has been interpreted from different perspectives. Some researchers have argued that the prevalence of English as a global language serves the interests of capitalist economies, with ELT coursebooks acting as vehicles for disseminating

describes English as "perhaps the most important single export of the last 300 years" (p. 366) and coined the term *Anglobalization* to define the relationship

between English and the British Empire.

However, in contemporary times, English has also been adopted as a lingua franca (Seidlhofer, 2001) due to the rise of transnational enterprises, the widespread use of the internet, and the dissemination of popular culture (Gray, 2010). The necessity of learning the English language has emerged from cultural and economic demands throughout history. Alongside the impacts of globalization, there has been a growing focus on the prevalence of culture worldwide and its role in English language teaching (ELT). This attention has prompted re-examination, with the works of researchers such as Byram (1990), Kramsch (1998), and the Council of Europe (1996) shedding light on the need to review the objectives of language teaching and learning.

Furthermore, the concept of the *intercultural speaker* (Kramsch, 1998) has emerged, further emphasizing the importance of considering culture in language education. This notion underscores the need to reevaluate the goals and aims of language teaching and learning processes.

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The Inclusion of Culture in English Language Teaching

Regarding the non-neutral nature of culture, the place of culture in ELT has evoked significant attention of researchers with differing perspectives. Within the time, as Jacobs and Farrell (2003) assert, educational paradigm has showed a shift from positivist to post-positivist approach that is triggered by the work of Long (1997), as the perception of culture has changed, and the notion of culture has been described dynamic view rather than static entities. This dynamic perspective has paved the way for a shift from a culturalist to an interculturalist view in ELT.

Canagarajah (2007) argues that learners need more than just structures and forms of the target language to acquire language proficiency and grasp the true essence of communication. In order to understand contextual meaning, the inclusion of culture has become an indispensable part of the language teaching process (Nault, 2006).

It appears that the emergence of intercultural competence has been based on the shift from a culturalist perspective to an interculturalist perspective in teaching. The representation of culture in the language classroom used to be static, focusing on providing information specific to a particular group of people living in the same region, such as festivals, daily routines, and holidays. Stieglitz (1955)

states that in language teaching, the representation of culture in coursebooks was limited to the native people of the target culture in Berlitz language schools, where the primary concern was the linguistic forms of the target language. However, with the influence of works by Lado (1957), who embraced a more Humboldtian view that aimed for better self-understanding, a general representation of the target culture started being included in language teaching and learning.

With the introduction of the concept of communicative competence by Hymes (1972), the shift in teaching direction brought about the need to include culture in language teaching. Byram (1988) and Kramsch (1993) have paved the way for the Humboldtian approach to the language teaching process. Byram (1997) states that due to the misapplication of communicative competence to second language teaching, teachers often strive to make learners *ersatz native speakers*. The introduction of the concept of *intercultural speaker*, which requires understanding the cultural implications of the target language in a communication context, necessitates a revisiting of the aims of second language teaching. Kramsch (1993) considers culture in second language teaching and learning as an "expendable fifth skill" (p. 1). Furthermore, learners bring their own culture to the communication setting,

which Kramsch (1993) refers to as the "third place" (p. 235). The inclusion of culture as a part of foreign language teaching has been the focus of numerous researchers (e.g., Byram, 1997; 2001; Byram et. al 1991; Corbett 2003; Cortazzi & Jin 1999; Kramsch, 1993; Lado, 1957; Sowden, 2007).

While the concept of intercultural communication traces its origins back to the work of linguist Lado (1957), the development of the intercultural communicative competence model has positioned Byram (1997; 2001) as one of the pioneers in recognizing the importance of incorporating socio-cultural dimensions into language teaching. According to Byram (1997), intercultural communicative competence, which is evolved from the term *communicative competence* coined by Hymes (1972), is the blend of linguistic

Developing Intercultural Competence in Foreign Language

While its usage is prevalent in the literature, there remains a lack of consensus regarding the definition of intercultural communicative competence, which is derived from the term communicative competence. However, all definitions share four common dimensions: knowledge, attitude, skill, and behavior (Deardorff, 2006). Specifically, intercultural competence is closely tied to the socio-cultural context. Thus, in order to grasp the

competence, sociolinguistic competence, and discourse competence. Among the other definitions, Taylor (1994) gives a profound definition of intercultural communicative competence as "the ability to develop adaptive capacity to alter one's perspective to understand and adapt to the demands of the target culture" (p. 154). Moreover, as this competence is not an innate ability, Byram (1997) correspondingly states that one needs to develop this ability since language is like a key that opens the door of culture. As the Council of Europe (1996) began to utter the need for a socio-cultural dimension in language teaching setting (Van Ek & Trim, 1991), the model of intercultural communicative competence by Byram and Zarate (1994) has become a European educational goal for language teaching and learning.

true essence of communication within a given context and to acquire intercultural competence, it is necessary to cultivate a greater tolerance for the intricate nature of society. In a similar vein, Hiller and Woźniak (2009) associate intercultural competence with a capacity to tolerate ambiguity.

In order to promote intercultural competence within the foreign language classroom, Kaikkonen (2004) identifies three distinct methods: "information pedagogy, encounter pedagogy, and conflict- and intervention pedagogy" (pp.

150-156). According to Kaikkonen (2004), information pedagogy is the most widely applied pedagogy for raising awareness of intercultural issues. The primary objective of information pedagogy is to equip learners with static cultural knowledge, often presenting prescribed actions or behaviors. However, Kordes (1990) argues that relying solely on information pedagogy may be insufficient in providing a comprehensive understanding of cultural nuances, potentially leading to stereotyping and hindering the development of dynamic cultural understanding.

Encounter pedagogy, as its name implies, places emphasis on direct engagement with representatives of the target language culture, allowing learners to gain firsthand experience. This approach is considered partially effective in fostering intercultural competence (Kaikkonen, 2004). On the other hand, conflict- and intervention pedagogy delves into sensitive topics such as racism, encouraging learners to actively confront and address cultural issues, thereby stimulating the development of cultural awareness.

Intercultural Communicative Competence through Coursebooks

The role of culture in English language teaching has undergone re-examination, primarily driven by the identification of competencies associated with intercultural communicative competence as proposed by Byram (1997;

2001), as well as the exploration of the qualifications and experiences that characterize an intercultural speaker, as discussed by Kramsch (1998). Holliday (1994) has brought forth a clear presentation of the issues pertaining to culture within language classrooms.

(a) the question of the teaching of culture along with language, whether or not it should or must be taught, and if so, which culture should be taught, and how it should be taught; and (b) the influence of cultural differences on the learning behavior of students from different parts of the world (pp. 125-126).

After transcending the debate over whether culture should be integrated into ELT, it becomes evident that in the 21st century, there is a shift from merely including cultural concepts in language instruction to fostering a deeper understanding of the underlying values and beliefs embedded within culture (Dema & Moeller, 2013). In this regard, Dervin (2011) critiques culturalism or solid interculturality, arguing that such approaches fail to acknowledge the complexity of individuals who interact with each other and reduce them to cultural facts, creating an impression of "encounters of cultures" rather than recognizing them as unique individuals (p. 38). Thus, culture is not a distinct entity but rather an amalgamation of facts that are

interconnected with language, individuals, and their understanding of culture.

Teaching a language in a country distant from the target culture is often regarded as a "daring venture" (Fahmy & Bilton, 1992, p. 269). In many educational contexts, ELT coursebooks assume the role of content providers and ambassadors of the target language for teachers and students who have limited exposure to the target community. Language coursebooks are considered a primary source of target language cultural content due to the absence of alternative materials (Hinkel & Long, 1999). They serve several functions, namely "a teacher, a map, a resource, a trainer, an authority, a de-skinner, or an ideology" (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999, p. 16). However, they have also faced criticism for being government-backed commodities imbued with cultural aspects and disseminating specific ideas. Phillipson (1992) criticizes British coursebooks, viewing them as driven by economic and ideological agendas aimed at promoting commerce and the spread of certain ideas.

Aligned with Phillipson's (1992) critique, a case study conducted by Fahmy and Bilton (1992) in the undergraduate Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) program at Sultan Qaboos University in the Sultanate of Oman sheds light on the challenges faced by TEFL programs and students in the language learning process. The study focuses on the

sociocultural, linguistic, and educational backgrounds of student teachers. The students' motivation to study English is associated with pragmatic reasons due to limited contact with the language. The context highlights issues related to English language learning, including the local governments' language policies aimed at avoiding cultural contamination while simultaneously confronting the forces of globalization and its anticipated outcomes, such as adapting to the new world to achieve economic growth. On the other hand, there are researchers (Byram, 1997; Risager, 1991) who advocate for the inclusion of cultural elements in language coursebooks to foster the development of students' intercultural communicative competence.

Eliot's (1948) statement, "even the humblest material artefact which is the product and the symbol of a particular civilization, is an emissary of the culture out of which it comes" (p. 92), may not directly apply to the context of ELT. However, it serves as a reflection that certain countries, such as China and Saudi Arabia, tend to heavily exclude English-speaking culture from the materials used in language instruction (Gray, 2000). On the other hand, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue that ELT coursebooks play a fundamental role in teaching and learning English. In their study, they found that teachers and learners do not strictly adhere to the

coursebook script; they modify the text and adapt the tasks. They emphasize that avoiding ELT coursebooks due to their cultural and ideological values does not meet the actual needs of people.

Gray's (2000) study revealed that teachers, who participated in a questionnaire, confirmed that all coursebooks include cultural information that pertains solely to British people. The role of culture has been a focal point in various studies (Gray, 2000; Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; Risager, 1991) analyzing coursebooks and exploring teachers' opinions on developing intercultural competence through their representation in ELT coursebooks. However, the perspectives of students regarding the development of intercultural competence through ELT coursebooks, which serve as the sole mediator between learning English and students in many countries, have not received the same level of attention. Thus, this paper aims to address the following research questions:

1. What do EFL students think of the integration of target culture in their English language coursebook?
2. What are the perceptions and expectations of EFL students of the cultural elements and contents in their in-use coursebooks?

Methodology

The present study aims to investigate the perceptions of EFL students regarding the extent to which their coursebook promotes the acquisition of intercultural competence. The explanatory sequential mixed methods approach, combining qualitative and quantitative data analysis techniques, was employed to achieve this objective. Creswell (2014) defines the explanatory sequential mixed methods approach as "a two-phase project in which the researcher collects quantitative data in the first phase, analyzes the results, and then uses the results to plan (or build on to the second, qualitative phase" (p. 274).

The study was conducted at a public university in the western region of Türkiye, specifically in the School of Foreign Languages, during the spring term of the 2021-2022 academic year. The participants ($N=260$) were preparation class students who were learning English for their English Medium Instruction (EMI) departments. They attended English classes for 25 hours per week online due to the implementation of Emergency Remote Teaching. The first term of the school comprised of 14 weeks, and the coursebooks used were Speakout Starter Second Edition (Eales & Oakes, 2016a) and Speakout Elementary Second Edition (Eales & Oakes, 2016b) for the online lessons. In the first term, students were expected to achieve a proficiency

level of A2.

The demographic characteristics of the participants were as follows: out of the 260 students, 165 (approximately 64%) were female, while 95 (36%) were male. In terms of age, the majority of participants were between 18 and 20 years old. Specifically, out of the 260 participants, a total of 10 students volunteered to participate in the interviews. Among these participants, 6 were female and 4 were male. The students represented various departments, including Industrial Engineering, Civil Engineering, Business Administration, Labor Economy and Industrial Relations, International Relations, Chemistry, Electronical Communication Engineering, and Environmental Engineering. All participants were Turkish citizens. Both the questionnaire and the interviews were conducted with the students on a voluntary basis after school hours.

Ethical Committee Approval

In this study, within the scope of the "Higher Education Institutions Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Directive". All rules stated to be followed have been followed. The second part of the directive, "Scientific Research and Publication". None of the actions mentioned under the heading "Unethical Actions" have been carried out.

In 30.01.2021 with the number of E-84026528-050.01.04-2100049940 Ethical permission to conduct the study was

obtained from the Ethics Committee of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, School of Graduate Studies in addition to the institutional approval obtained from a state university which is located in the west of Türkiye.

Data Collection Instruments

Data collection in this study consisted of two phases. In the first phase, data was collected through an online questionnaire adapted from Devrim and Bayyurt (2010). The questionnaire, written in Turkish, consisted of 20 questions using a Likert scale (see Appendix A). Google Forms was used to design and administer the questionnaire, which consisted of five sections: the first section gathered demographic information, the second section explored participants' intention to learn English, the third section focused on the skills covered in the textbooks, the fourth section examined the contents presented in the textbooks, and the final section aimed to identify the skills that should be included in the coursebooks.

Prior to the main data collection, an online pilot study was conducted with twenty students from an English preparatory school at another university in the western region of Türkiye. These students were not involved in the actual study and shared similar characteristics in terms of age and sociolinguistic background with the participants. Their feedback and responses were used to

refine and modify the questions in the fourth section of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to the participants after their regular school hours.

The second phase of the study involved conducting semi-structured interviews consisting of twelve questions, some of which were adapted from Yilmaz (2006) (see Appendix B). The interviews were conducted in Turkish. Ten participants who had completed the questionnaire volunteered to participate in the interviews. The interviews aimed to gather the participants' perspectives on various aspects, including their reasons for learning English, their perceptions of culture and its relationship with language, the contents and skills covered in the textbooks, and the presence of cultural information in the textbooks.

The interview responses were compiled to create a corpus using Sketch Engine, which allowed for the exploration of frequently used keywords and multi-word expressions by the participants, providing a general understanding of the interviews. The first part of the interview was analyzed using frequency analysis in

MAXQDA 2022 to gain an overall sense of the participants' perceptions. The last two parts of the interview were transcribed, and a thematic analysis was conducted. The thematic analysis aimed to explore and describe the participants'

perspectives, building upon similar studies that have examined teachers' and learners' views on the inclusion of cultural elements and information in English language textbooks (Lessard-Clouston, 1996; McKay, 2003; Prodromou, 1992).

Findings and Discussion

The participants' responses to the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The questionnaire data was collected through Google Forms and analyzed using SPSS version 25. Four different frequency analyses were conducted to explore the first research question. The means of the responses, presented in brackets, indicate the students' ratings on the Likert scale used in the questionnaire items, ranging from *1 (strongly disagree)* to *5 (strongly agree)*.

Table 1. *The Integration of Target Culture in Their English Language Coursebook*

Aspects	Mean Value
Contents in English Language Textbook	
Reading	4.17
Culture	4.13
Writing	4.07
Reasons for Learning English	
Education	4.87
Communication	4.81
Preferences on Topics in English Instruction	
Speaking Activities	4.88
Listening Activities	4.58
Inclusion of Information about Target Language Culture	
Cultural Elements in the Coursebook	3.76
Life and Culture in other English-speaking Countries	3.90

The first frequency analysis aimed to obtain descriptive statistics regarding students' opinions and understanding of the contents in their English Language textbook. The participants indicated that reading ($M=4.17$), culture ($M=4.13$), and writing ($M=4.07$) were the key aspects covered in their coursebook. This finding aligns with Äijälä's (2009) observation that a significant portion of the coursebook tasks (55%) focus on presenting cultural knowledge, which is further supported by the participants' opinions.

The second descriptive analysis explored the participants' reasons for learning English. The responses revealed that their main motivations were education in countries where English is a foreign language ($M=4.87$) and communication with Americans or native English speakers ($M=4.81$). These findings resonate with Rogers' (1982) notion that English is often perceived as a pathway to success, as well as Fahmy and Bilton's (1992) study, which

identified being well-educated and having the opportunity to study abroad as the top two reasons for learning English.

Regarding the participants' preferences for topics to be covered in English instruction, speaking activities ($M=4.88$) and listening activities ($M=4.58$) were of highest interest. This finding aligns with Strevens' (1992) emphasis on communicative goals. However, the inclusion of information about the target language culture ($M=3.76$) was considered one of the least favored items. In the section dedicated to cultural elements in the coursebook, the participants showed a preference for content related to life and culture in English-speaking countries ($M=3.90$). These findings indicate that the participants of this study primarily associate English with British and American cultures. This supports the significance of incorporating *international contexts* (Alptekin, 2002) and a partially *global culture* (Modiano, 2001) in English

language learning, as the participants' responses mainly focused on American and British cultures. This finding further justifies the studies conducted by Phillipson (1992) and Prodromou (1992) regarding the dissemination of British culture. Prodromou (1992) conducted a study on English language learners' preferences for models in a Greek school and found that learners mostly preferred British English as their first choice, followed by American English.

To explore the second research question, qualitative data on the students' understandings and opinions regarding the issue was collected. Ten participants were interviewed using semi-structured questions after the implementation of the questionnaire. Firstly, their responses were compiled to create a corpus through Sketch Engine, aiming to identify the most frequently used keywords and multi-words by the participants. The corpus encompassed all the answers provided for the 12 questions in the semi-structured interview. The results obtained from the corpus analysis revealed that the top three keywords were "stereotyped," "sophisticated," and "listening," while the most common multi-words used by the participants were "British culture," "European culture," and "language classroom." These findings align with previous studies (Prodromou, 1992) and complement the quantitative findings related to target culture. The term "culture"

was most frequently paired with various adjectives and language-related nouns, indicating that the participants associate culture with language and perceive them as interdependent.

In terms of reasons for learning English, the multi-words "universal language," "business life," and "competent employee" were frequently articulated by the participants during the interview. Furthermore, the top three adjectives used in the corpus to describe their understanding of culture were "different," "necessary," and "important." Regarding the inclusion of cultural elements in the textbook, the multi-words "cultural richness," "personal development," and "daily life" were commonly found in the corpus. These findings are in line with the theoretical perspectives of Kachru (1990) and Stevens (1992), which emphasize the communicative and instrumental aspects of learning English as significant motivators for English language students.

Secondly, a thematic analysis was conducted on the responses obtained from the semi-structured interview questions. The analysis involved categorizing the themes that emerged from the participants' answers. Following the approach adopted in similar studies that explored students' perspectives on the role of coursebooks in fostering intercultural competence (McKay, 2003; Prodromou, 1992), the interview was designed to be exploratory and descriptive

in nature. Based on the interview questions and the participants' comments, the following themes were identified:

1. The students' conceptualization of culture
2. The relationship between the coursebook and culture
3. The influence of culture in the language classroom

These themes were derived from the content analysis of the participants' responses and provide insights into their perceptions and understanding of culture in relation to their English language learning experiences.

The Students' Conceptualization of Culture

The second research question of this study focuses on examining the

perceptions and expectations of EFL students regarding the cultural elements and contents in their current coursebook. The initial set of four interview questions was specifically designed to explore the reasons for learning English and the participants' understanding of culture (see Appendix B).

The first question in the interview aimed to investigate the motives behind learning English. The participants provided various reasons, which are summarized in Table 2. It is worth noting that many participants mentioned multiple reasons for learning English. These findings highlight the significance of affective factors in language learning, with integrative motivation potentially being influenced by cultural affiliation.

Table 2. *The Motives Behind Learning English*

	Frequency	%
For personal development	7	33. 33
To find a proper job	6	28. 57
To communicate with foreigners	3	14. 29
To go abroad	2	9. 52
English is universal language	2	9. 52
To become a world citizen	1	4. 76
TOTAL	21	100

The Relationship between the Coursebook and Culture

The second question of the interview aimed to investigate the participants' perception of the relationship between language and culture. The

findings revealed that a significant majority of the participants (nine out of ten) acknowledged the interconnectedness of language and culture. This observation aligns with the widely accepted notion that language and culture are intricately linked

and exert mutual influence on each other.

Turning to the third question, the participants' preferences regarding cultural topics were examined. The majority of participants (seven out of ten) expressed a strong inclination towards learning about other nations' traditions, lifestyles, customs, and cuisine. In contrast, a smaller amount (three out of ten) indicated an interest in exploring other nations' political, historical, and economic aspects. It is noteworthy to mention the categorization of culture into "big C" and "little c" by Tomalin and Stempleski (1993). Scholars such as Chastain (1988), Pulverness (1995), and Tomalin and Stempleski (1993) emphasize the significance of incorporating both "little c" themes (values, food, customs, etc.) and "big C" themes (politics, history, economy) in EFL textbooks to enhance learners' intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Echoing this sentiment, Xiao (2010) asserts that cultural themes should primarily focus on customs, habits, holidays, and lifestyles, as these aspects hold greater potential for fostering ICC among learners.

Furthermore, participants exhibited divergent views regarding the definition of culture, ranging from perceiving culture as encompassing all the distinctive characteristics that define a society to understanding it as the embodiment of linguistic expressions. Analysis of their responses suggests that the participants

conceptualize culture as an ongoing experiential framework shaped by societal traditions, customs, and values. Hence, their understanding of culture encompasses the collective features that are intrinsic to a particular group of individuals or society.

The Influence of Culture in the Language Classroom

Thematic analysis was conducted on the responses provided by the participants, yielding several key themes. The analysis focused on exploring the participants' perceptions and attitudes towards the inclusion of cultural elements in their coursebook. The themes emerged from the data are presented below:

Involvement of Cultural Information in the Coursebook

This theme pertains to the participants' views on whether cultural elements should be included in the coursebook and, if so, what types of cultural elements should be incorporated. The participants unanimously agreed on the importance of including cultural information in the coursebook. They expressed that cultural elements, such as behavior patterns, social life, special days, and the significance of gifts in different cultures, should be included. The participants believed that understanding cultural aspects was essential for effective communication and harmony with people from different countries. Their perspectives

align with Kaikkonen's (2004) notion of static cultural information and emphasize the aesthetic and sociological aspects of the target language culture.

Perception of Cultural Elements in the Coursebook

This theme reflects the participants' perception of the cultural information presented in their coursebook. They expressed positive views, stating that their coursebook effectively presents cultural information about lifestyles, traditional dishes, festivals, relationships, shops, arts, and famous people from around the world. While the participants generally reported no difficulty understanding the cultural elements, they acknowledged that some cultural information differed from their own culture. Nevertheless, they found learning about different cultures exciting and considered it important for developing intercultural competence.

Cultural Elements Represented in the Coursebook

This theme focuses on the cultural elements featured in the coursebook. The participants noted that the coursebook includes cultural information from various cultures, including British, American, Spanish, and Far Eastern cultures. However, they also observed a predominance of British and American cultural elements in the coursebook, which they perceived as potentially limiting the representation of other cultures. They

provided examples of situations where cultural information related to British and American cultures seemed to take precedence, suggesting a need for more balanced cultural representation.

Desire for Learning about Target Language and Different Cultures

This theme highlights the participants' expressed preference for learning more about the target language culture and other cultures. The majority of participants viewed knowledge of different cultures as an intellectual asset. Some participants indicated that they already had sufficient exposure to British and American cultures through media and other sources, and therefore expressed a desire to explore other cultures. Additionally, the participants recognized the practical importance of understanding target language culture, as it would enable them to navigate cultural differences and communicate effectively when traveling abroad.

Integration of Culture in Language Teaching

This theme examines the participants' perceptions of how their teachers integrate culture into language teaching. The participants reported that their teachers incorporate target language culture based on their own overseas experiences, as well as through the use of videos and reading passages. They found their teachers' personal stories and

firsthand accounts of cultural differences particularly engaging. However, some participants also acknowledged that their teachers' knowledge of target language culture might be limited due to their shared cultural background.

Based on the students' responses, it can be inferred that they exposed to cultural information which can give rise stereotyping and generalizations about countries and nations (Baker, 2008; Dervin, 2006). The informants desire to acknowledge dos and don'ts list of the culture. That is to say that their understanding of culture is a kind of "recipe for action" (Holliday, 1994, p. 128). Also, their perceptions align with the findings of previous studies conducted by Çamlıbel (1998) and Lessard-Clouston (1996), which highlight the significance assigned by teachers to incorporating the culture of the target language in their instructional practices. Additionally, another noteworthy point is that Bayyurt's (2006) study indicates that non-native teachers do not perceive themselves as inadequate due to their non-native status. On the contrary, they assert that they can serve as role models for students.

Coursebook as a Guide for Language Teaching

This theme pertains to the participants' perception of the coursebook as a guiding tool for language teaching. They described how the coursebook served

as a roadmap, determining the subjects covered each week, such as health or technology. The participants engaged in various activities, including listening, reading, writing, and speaking, as prescribed in the coursebook. They generally found the introduction of different cultures and countries in each unit to be beneficial for their learning.

Overall, the participants' responses indicate that they perceive culture as a fundamental aspect of society and emphasize the importance of including cultural elements in language learning materials. They also expressed a desire for a more balanced representation of cultures in their coursebook.

Conclusion

While numerous studies have focused on teachers' perspectives regarding culture in various EFL contexts, the students' viewpoint on cultural understanding and preferences has received limited attention. Therefore, the primary objective of this study is to investigate students' understanding of culture within the EFL context, as well as their opinions on how culture should be integrated into language classrooms. This research is motivated by the fact that many English language learners are distanced from the target language culture and are taught by non-native English teachers worldwide. Additionally, English language coursebooks play a crucial role in shaping

English lessons. Consequently, it can be inferred that students strive to acquire the target language while having limited exposure to the target culture, and their motivation for learning English is often driven by pragmatic considerations, such as educational purposes and cross-cultural communication. This finding aligns with the conclusions drawn in Fahmy and Bilton's (1992) study. Regarding the participants' opinions on the inclusion of *culture* in the coursebook, both quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted. British and American cultures emerged as the predominant choices in their responses. Furthermore, the participants expressed a desire to learn more about the culture of the target language to avoid potential difficulties arising from a lack of knowledge

regarding social norms and customs when traveling abroad. They also recognized the value of teachers' overseas experiences, as these experiences provide them with a set of guidelines (dos and don'ts) for navigating the target language setting. This finding supports McKay's (2003) emphasis on the significance of incorporating culturally related topics. However, based on the participants' responses, it can be inferred that they possess a static understanding of culture, potentially influenced by Kaikkonen's (2004) information pedagogy, which portrays culture as a shared construction by a group of people.

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Appendix A

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire is in Turkish. Likert scale is used in the construction of the instrument

Section I: Reasons for Learning English

- (R.1) Education in the U.K. or U.S.
- (R.2) Education in other countries where English is the native language
- (R.3) Education in countries where English is the official language
- (R.4) Education in countries where English is a foreign language
- (R.5) To communicate with Americans or the English
- (R.6) To communicate with people from other countries where English is the native language
- (R.7) To communicate with people from countries where English is the official language
- (R.8) To communicate with people from countries where English is a foreign language
- (R.9) To find work after graduation
- (R.10) To use the internet

Section II: Skills and Aspects of Language Covered in English Language Coursebook Items

- (B.1) Grammar
- (B.2) Reading
- (B.3) Listening
- (B.4) Writing
- (B.5) Speaking
- (B.6) Vocabulary
- (B.7) Culture of the language

Section III: Suggestions for More Effective English Language Learning Classes

- (S.1) Grammar
- (S.2) Speaking activities
- (S.3) Listening activities
- (S.4) Reading
- (S.5) Vocabulary exercises
- (S.6) Writing activities
- (S.7) Information about target language culture
- (S.8) Pair or group work

Section IV: Content of English Language Textbooks

- (Q9.1) Life and culture in Türkiye
- (Q9.2) Life and culture in the U.S.A. and U.K.
- (Q9.3) Life and culture in other countries where English is the native language
- (Q9.4) Life and culture in countries where English is an official language
- (Q9.5) Life and culture in countries where English is a foreign language

Appendix B

Interview Questions

The Students' Concept of Culture

1. Why do you learn English?
2. What is culture for you? Please explain. Is there a relationship between language and culture? Please explain.
3. Which culture do you associate English with? Why?
4. What else should be done in English language classes? Please explain.

Textbook and Culture

1. Should English teaching/learning textbook include cultural elements? What kind of cultural elements? Why?
2. Do you think that the inclusion of the culture in the coursebook you use is enough to learn properly?
3. Do you prefer to learn more about different culture in language classroom? Why/ Why not?
4. Are there cultural elements in your English learning textbook that you do not understand?
5. Which culture is included in the coursebook?

Language Classroom and Culture

1. How does your teacher integrate culture to language teaching?
 2. My teachers usually teach us the cultures of_____ (How do you fill this gap?)
 3. What do you do in English language classes? Please explain. And how should language teaching be like? Please explain.
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